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ABSTRACT

Using interviews and questionnaire, this survey investigated aspects of the Agency for International Development (AID) training programs, participants' reactions, and subsequent uses made of training. Data were obtained on personal background and occupation, pretraining activities, actual program sojourns, and the aftermath. These were among the findings: (1) typically, former trainees were relatively mature (age 35), experienced men occupying administrative, technical, and professional positions in government service; (2) leading fields of training were agriculture, industry and mining, education, health, public administration, and transportation; (3) observation tours or combinations of methods predominated; (4) trainees were satisfied with selection processes and initial information on social and cultural patterns, but less so with other aspects of their preparation; (5) program length (preferably longer) was the main point in overall evaluations; (6) most trainees were satisfied with, and a majority have made effective use of, their training; (7) program length, participant involvement in planning, perceived career advantages, satisfaction, and relationships to AID were significantly related to utilization, but evaluations of nontechnical program aspects apparently were not. (ly)

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A.I.D. PARTICIPANT TRAINING PROGRAM

AN EVALUATION STUDY
GLOBAL ANALYSIS

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF STATE
Agency for International Development
Washington, D.C. 20523

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A.I.D. PARTICIPANT TRAINING PROGRAM

THE TRANSFER AND USE OF DEVELOPMENT SKILLS

An Evaluation Study of U.S. Technical Training Programs
for Participants from Underdeveloped Areas

1966

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The Survey of Returned Participants: A Prefatory Note and Acknowledgments

In 1959 the Agency for International Development (then ICA) undertook a comprehensive evaluation study of its Participant Training Program. Personal interviews with former trainees were to be held in their own countries as a means of assessing the value of training. The Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., of Washington, D. C. has supplied technical consulting and research services to the Agency relating to the planning, design of survey materials, and field work procedures since the study's initiation, and has also produced reports based on the survey data. The Bureau's work on this project was done under contracts, in liaison with the Evaluation Staff of the Office of International Training of AID.

Reports and analyses for which the Bureau has been responsible are of three types:

1. Country reports, based on data from participants in particular countries. The responsibility for most country reports rested with each U. S. Mission (USAID); in a few cases the Bureau has assumed the task of field work or analysis, and produced reports or summaries of the survey data. Most country reports are available through AID.

2. World wide and regional reports, based on the data pooled from countries in which the study was conducted. This world wide analysis is based on studies in twenty-three countries. Summary reports on the four regions in which the program has been active (Latin America, Far East, Near East and South Asia, and North Africa) are also available through AID; they include data from six countries which were received too late for analysis in the world wide report. (European participants took training of a different nature; their countries were exempted from study.)

3. Special reports and analyses prepared at the request of AID, supplying information based on special tabulations of the survey data. The standardized format used in the study and the manner of processing these data for computer analysis permit ready comparisons among subgroups of trainees.

* * *

At the Bureau:

Dr. Robert T. Bower, Director of the Bureau, has provided continuing guidance for its work on this project. Mrs. Aurilla White made many contributions to the study during her tenure as its director. In the latter phases of the study the assistance of John M. Kert, Gene B. Petersen, Barton Sensenig, and Ivor Wayne of the Bureau's professional staff was of particular value. Miss Celeste Heyl processed the manuscript of this report with admirable efficiency.

Dr. Albert E. Gollin, study director on this research project since 1963 for the Bureau, accepts sole responsibility for the analysis and interpretative conclusions contained in this report.

At AID:

Dr. Forrest E. Clements, Chief of the Evaluation and Follow-up Staff has been responsible for the supervision and coordination of the world wide evaluation study. In this capacity he has monitored the work of the Bureau with exemplary tact, and has given much valuable counsel. The impetus given by John H. Ohly to the systematic study of AID assistance programs and the facilitating roles of Dr. Cameron F. Bremseth, David Mayer and Herbert D. Turner in this evaluation effort also warrant special note.

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I. THE STUDY OF PARTICIPANT TRAINING: AN INTRODUCTION

The Historical Setting

In the years since 1945 governmentally-sponsored programs of international education, training or cultural exchange have played a minor but continuing role in U. S. foreign policies. One of these, the AID Participant Training Program has served as a means of providing technical training to foreign nationals for approximately two decades, administered by a variety of predecessor agencies. Its purposes and nature have altered over the years, in line with shifts in the character of U. S. foreign aid programs. Because it is less well known than many other exchange programs, we will sketch the relation of this training program concept to its historical context, and then provide an overview of the evaluation study.

The origins of governmentally-sponsored training of foreign nationals can be traced to a program of technical assistance initiated by the Institute of Inter-American Affairs in 1942. Assistance projects were launched with the goals of improving agricultural productivity, health and sanitation, and in other fields vital to the hemispheric wartime effort. American advisors and specialists provided direct assistance by their work on these projects. They also undertook some local training activities and sent several hundred Latin Americans to the U. S. on inspection tours, for practical work experience or in some cases for extended periods of study. A few aid projects in the field of education were launched in several of these countries. In addition, grants were made to Chinese students (caught in the U. S. by the war) and to several Middle East institutions for special training programs. Although quite limited in scope and purpose, these early programs broke new ground in cooperative efforts and much was learned about the programming of technical training.[1]

---

[1] Our discussion of the history of training as a mode of technical assistance draws heavily on the following source: Charles A. Thomson and Walter H. C. Laves, Cultural Relations and U. S. Foreign Policy (Bloomington: Indiana U. Press, 1963), Part I. Compare also John P. Powelson, "Educational Assistance, Economic Development and United States Foreign Policy," in Post-Primary Education and Political and Economic Development, ed. Don C. Piper and Taylor Cole (Durham: Duke University Press, 1964), pp. 128-152.

Training and education programs were given new momentum as a concomitant of the Marshall plan and Truman Doctrine, when economic recovery and mutual security became dominant themes of American foreign policy. Programs of technical training were initiated by the Economic Cooperation Administration (ECA) to meet the needs for better trained personnel to staff the reconstruction projects it was helping to support. The scope and costs of this and other forms of technical assistance were infinitesimal by comparison with the massive amounts of economic and military aid being supplied to cooperating European nations; training and education had a low priority in planning and programming.

But the technical training program achieved special recognition by virtue of its sharp focus on increasing productivity. As part of specific projects in industry and agriculture some training was given by American technicians and advisors in the host countries; in addition, considerable numbers of Europeans were formed into "productivity teams." These teams, consisting largely of older participants--managers, technicians, shop stewards and trade-union leaders--were sent to the U. S. for visits lasting several weeks, to observe industrial practices and learn from American counterparts about methods and techniques for increasing productivity. Other groups of younger workers came for periods of intensive work experience in factories, often for as long as one year. The practical training was usually supplemented by discussions of problems of supervision and production and lectures on labor-management relations. (A few years later this model of productivity training was again successfully employed with participants of similar status from certain Asian countries, notably Japan.) The primary purpose was to accelerate economic recovery by improving productivity through a wholesale transfer of American "know-how" and more modern techniques.

The ranks of European participants were soon swelled by growing numbers of people from underdeveloped areas, whose training was part of the technical cooperation and assistance programs envisaged in Point Four of President Truman's Inaugural Address in 1949.

> . . . Fourth, we must embark on a bold new program for making the benefits of our scientific advances and industrial progress available for the improvement and growth of underdeveloped areas.
>
> More than half the people of the world are living in conditions approaching misery . . . .
>
> For the first time in history, humanity possesses the knowledge and the skill to relieve the suffering of these people.

> The United States is pre-eminent among nations in the development of industrial and scientific techniques. The material resources which we can afford to use for the assistance of other peoples are limited. But our imponderable resources in technical knowledge are constantly growing and are inexhaustible.
>
> I believe that we should make available to peace-loving peoples the benefits of our store of technical knowledge in order to help them realize their aspirations for a better life . . . .

The policies formulated in the wake of this Point Four statement enlarged the potential scope of U. S. assistance to include not only the countries with whom we were allied in mutual security programs but also neutral and newly independent countries of the Near East, Asia and Africa. The new policies also permitted a revitalized aid program to Latin America. The outbreak of the Korean war increased the flow of U. S. economic and military aid designed to promote mutual security, eclipsing the very modest programs of technical cooperation for development which were being launched. But growing numbers of U. S. technicians were sent abroad under Point Four agreements to help meet the needs of the developing countries for trained manpower; conversely, greater numbers of foreign nationals from more countries were arriving each year in the U. S. for technical training.

In 1950 only 1710 participants came to the U. S. from a relative handful of countries. By 1955 the number had risen to almost 5000 from 59 nations, mainly from Europe, Latin America and Asia. Further extension of technical cooperation and assistance agreements was achieved when aid programs were consolidated within the newly-founded International Cooperation Administration (ICA). In 1960 almost 6800 foreign nationals from 84 countries arrived in the U. S. for training. By that time the total number of U. S.-trained participants passed 50,000; many thousands more had received some special training under U. S. sponsorship in "third countries." Nevertheless, technical assistance was small in scope, when compared with other U. S. foreign aid instrumentalities, even with respect to technical training. Thus, within roughly the same time period (1951-1960) the military assistance program provided more than 100,000 men from the armed forces of other countries with formal programs of instruction in U. S. installations. But the cumulative experience with programs of technical assistance around the world yielded benefits disproportionate to their limited scope. One of these has been a steady growth in understanding of the complexities of the development process and the important role of human resources in it.

Human Resources and Development

Marshall Plan aid consisted largely of military and capital (grants and loans) assistance to finance economic recovery; little use was made of technical assistance. Most of the countries had a skilled and specialized labor force, the political will and the administrative capacity required for national reconstruction. In this period economic theorizing and planning concentrated heavily on capital formation and investment; almost nothing was heard of the concept of human resources.

As these economic aid programs began to phase out in the early 1950's and development assistance programs began to multiply, the proportion of Europeans sent to the U. S. for technical training declined steadily. In 1952, they were 90 per cent; three years later, 41 per cent; and by 1960 only 10 per cent of all U. S. arrivals. The participants from underdeveloped areas who took their places needed training of a very different order. The earlier assistance projects for which technical training was required were devised for nations in advanced stages of economic development. In many of the Point Four-assisted countries, capital outlays for development programs often could not be made, or available funds went unspent because of serious shortages in trained manpower, or gaps in planning and organization in the host countries. One began to hear about problems of "absorptive capacity." The European experience was, in sum, not very relevant for the assistance planners when they turned their attention to the underdeveloped areas where basic organizational and human resources were lacking.

In confronting these new circumstances, the crucial contributions of technical assistance became more apparent. Overcoming such fundamental deficiencies in human resources could be done in only a limited number of ways: by importing advisers or experts as a source of trained manpower, by upgrading the skills of the available labor force, and by more basic investments in educational institutions.

> The function of technical assistance and other forms of foreign help with human resources is twofold. It can help fill gaps between the skill requirements implicit in development programmes and the domestic stock of skills. But it is also needed to strengthen and supplement a country's capacity to produce new skills via its educational system. Thus foreign help can supplement both the stock and the flow.[1]

---

[1] Angus Maddison, Foreign Skills and Technical Assistance in Economic Development (Paris: O.E.C.D. Development Centre, 1965) p. 12.

All of these "stock and flow" strategies were employed in the 1950's as aspects of total U. S. assistance, but not always in a coordinated way, or guided by a consistent view of the role of human resources in development. With additional program experience, however, technical assistance through education and training gained higher priority as a mode of development assistance; in the establishment of the Agency for International Development in 1961, the language of the enabling legislation gave clear and pointed expression to this:

> In countries and areas which are in the earlier stages of economic development, programs of development of education and human resources through such means as technical cooperation shall be emphasized, and the furnishing of capital facilities for purposes other than the development of education and human resources shall be given a lower priority until the requisite knowledge and skills have been developed.

This recognition was also fostered by a renewal of interest among economists in the part played by "investments in human capital" and education in economic growth. Theoretical and research work on development by scholars in other fields multiplied, and the links between development and noneconomic variables began to be explored, stimulated partly by the magnitude and diversity of U. S. foreign aid programs. In less than a decade a sizable body of relevant literature was produced; a bibliography of over 1100 items on the role of education and human resources contains a cautious phrase to the effect that "this present volume is far from exhaustive."[1] While many specific issues are still in dispute, few would quarrel with the following depiction of how the concept of human resource development relates to the process of modernization.

> Human resource development is the process of increasing the knowledge, skills and capacities of all the people in a society. In economic terms, it could be described as the accumulation of human capital and its effective investment. [Politically it] prepares people for adult participation in political processes . . . . [Socio-culturally it] helps people to lead fuller and richer lives, less bound by tradition. In short, the processes of human resource development unlock the door to modernization.[2]

Programs of technical training such as the ones which are the subject of this report clearly fall into the category of efforts to develop human resources. But as policy requirements have shifted, and as the balance in the origins of participants has tipped away from Europe to the less developed regions of the world, the objectives and nature of these training activities have broadened. The earlier training programs were more narrowly conceived, with an emphasis on the limited transfer of concepts and techniques to increase productivity in already-established programs or enterprises. There was a good human resources base upon which to build. A recent statement of the objectives of international training programs conducted by AID gives evidence of the additional and more fundamental tasks with which a human resource development strategy of assistance must cope. New institutions must be built, as well as old ones modernized, and new motivations and commitments have to be established.

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[1] M. Alexander-Frutschi (ed.), Human Resources and Economic Growth (Menlo Park: Stanford Research Institute, 1963), p. ix.

[2] Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Myers, Education, Manpower and Economic Growth (New York: McGraw Hill, 1964), p. 2. This authoritative work also contains a brief account of the history of the concept in economic thought.

> . . . . The Objectives of the AID training programs are not only to improve the technical, professional, and managerial skills and knowledge of participants, but also to introduce attitudes and values essential to developmental activities, and to inculcate an appreciation of the need for social as well as economic growth and to demonstrate insofar as possible that these are inseparable. Conscious effort is made, therefore, to assure exposure to the thinking and living processes possible only in a free and democratic political society.[1]

An Overview of the Study

General Background

Late in 1959 a decision was taken by the International Cooperation Administration to evaluate its participant training program on a world wide basis. Studies of the programs in several countries had been made, but they varied widely in scope, content and methodology. The official policy statement which launched the survey of returned participants made these key points.

> . . . The participant training program is a training and educational program of major magnitude. It is an integral component of the ICA-host countries economic development programs, whose broad objectives it is designed to serve . . . . Is [it] succeeding in its objectives? [There is a] need for careful study of the results of the participant training program [by means of] a systematic evaluation employing standardized content and methodology in all countries. This will permit the collection and analysis of uniform and meaningful information, and its use as a management tool in guiding the conduct of future training activities . . . .[2]

After consultations in Washington and the field it was decided to use a standard personal interview schedule as the major instrument of the evaluation study. Interviews were to be obtained with returned participants in all countries where the program was of sufficient size and duration to warrant systematic study, and where the necessary concurrences could be obtained. The responsibility for conducting the evaluation survey was delegated to each U. S. Operations Mission. Several alternative procedures for accomplishing the study were stipulated, but comparability of research method and results was secured by providing each USOM with an elaborate set of highly detailed guidelines for data collection and analysis of the survey, and by the continuous coordination supplied by the Evaluation Staff in Washington.[1]

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[1] U. S. Congress, House, Ideological Operations and Foreign Policy: Report No. 2. 88th Congress, 2d Sess., 1964. (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office), p. 35. Emphasis added.

[2] Appendix B contains a lengthy abstract of the policy statement of ICA in which the objectives and procedures of the study are fully detailed.

The topics and issues covered in the interview schedule were determined primarily by the administrative needs of the Agency for precise information on aspects of its training programs, participants' reactions to them, and the subsequent uses that were made of the training. No questions were included which touched on participants' beliefs or attitudes about matters unrelated to their programs of technical training. The primary objectives of the survey were specified as follows:

> To ascertain whether the participants: (1) are returning to the positions for which they were trained, (2) are effectively utilizing their training, and (3) are transmitting to others their newly acquired knowledge and skills.
>
> To identify significant factors which contribute to or hinder utilization of training and communication of knowledge and skills.
>
> To ascertain if the technical training provided by ICA is at the appropriate level, of good quality, and relevant to the needs of the participants in the context of the home country situation.
>
> To ascertain if the nontechnical aspects of the training programs, that is, pretraining orientation in the USOM and in Washington or in the third country of training, community participation, and hospitality and instruction in the economic, social, and cultural factors influencing the specific profession or field of activity, were emphasized in the right proportion and were effective.
>
> To ascertain if the administrative practices and procedures of ICA are adequate and effective and to identify weaknesses and causes of dissatisfaction.
>
> To produce other reliable information concerning matters about which there is presently only speculation; such as the relative merits of U. S. vs. third country training, the relevance of the age of the participant to the accomplishment of a successful training program and subsequent utilization of the training, and the like.

The interview schedule used with a participant was designed to follow the typical flow of his experiences. It began with a few items on his personal background and occupation, at selection and currently (some of this information was transcribed from available records), and then went into details of selection, sponsorship, preparation, program planning and other pretraining activities. The largest block of questions was devoted to descriptions and evaluations of the program sojourn; these included items on orientation, program management, type and locale of training, language problems, assessments about technical and nontechnical aspects of training, and so on. The last section of the interview schedule dealt with the posttraining period: participants' career patterns, relations with U. S. advisors or assistance projects, use of training and further plans, extent and ways of transmitting benefits of training to others, and a set of general evaluations of the training experience.

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[1] A complete listing of the documentation and study guidelines is also given in Appendix B.

Interviews were held in the language most appropriate to the former participant's cultural setting. Versions of the standard questionnaire were prepared in four languages, and occasionally they were adapted to local dialects by the host country's multilingual interviewers. The major sources of information and evaluative comments were participants who had been back from training at least six months at the time of the initial preparations for the survey in each country. Additional sets of questionnaires were developed for interviews with the current work supervisors of the participants, and with those U. S. technicians who knew them before or after their training. These latter groups evaluated the training of individual participants, and also made a few general assessments of the program in their country.

In a few countries work began on the evaluation survey in 1960, and others have joined in this world wide effort in succeeding years. Studies have been conducted in thirty countries, with dates of completion of interviewing ranging from 1960 to the present; surveys in a few other countries are in process or projected for the coming year. As interviewing was completed in each country, the answers were coded into standard categories and transferred to IBM cards in a prearranged and identical format. One set of these results and the completed interview schedules were retained by each USOM to be used for the primary analysis of the survey findings. A duplicate set of results (in the form of data cards) was shipped to AID in Washington for analysis on regional and world wide bases, and for studies of special groups of trainees, as the need arose. The time lags between the policy statement, the completion of interviewing and data processing in the participating countries, and the production of each country's report over this period of time bear mute witness to the hazards and complexities of social research in underdeveloped areas. In some countries this survey was the first or most formidable undertaking of its kind.

Research traditions and even the most elementary data processing facilities were often lacking or in short supply. Thus, instruction and use of host country personnel in the tasks of the survey was a form of technical assistance in its own right.

The Scope and Organization of This Report

The survey data for this world wide report come from the evaluation studies conducted in twenty-three countries, those having sent a duplicate set of results to Washington by late 1963. The bulk of the interviews with participants took place in 1961 and 1962. In most instances the end of Fiscal Year 1961 was used as a cut-off data for establishing the eligibility of returned participants for inclusion in analysis. Additional processing of these data was necessary to ensure comparability prior to running tables needed for this report.

In some of the surveyed countries all participants who had been back from training at least six months (at the cut-off date) and could be located were sought out for interviewing. In about half of them, it was necessary to draw a probability sample of participants from a listing of eligible returnees, because of the large numbers of former participants. A total of 500 interviews was the suggested target in such countries; in a few cases this target was overachieved because of local options and requirements for data, or misinterpretations of the study guidelines.

Because in some countries sampling was used in conducting the survey, participants' answers were weighted so as to represent the total of then-eligible participants. By this technique, aggregates correspond to data which would have been gotten from all qualified former participants in the twenty-three countries included in this report. As it turned out, this transformation made very little difference in actual practice: total results based on weighted and unweighted responses rarely varied even as much as one per cent. Thus, weighting approximates the number of participants actually sent for training by these countries in the indicated time period and provides the number of cases needed for intensive analysis. The results, whether weighted or unweighted, cannot be generalized beyond this set of countries. Other limitations on the scope of interpretation of the findings will be mentioned in the body of the report. The countries whose participants' responses have been weighted and combined for this world wide report are shown in Table 1.1, which contains the numbers and proportions in each, and the first recorded year in which a participant left for training.

TABLE 1.1.--TOTAL SURVEYED PARTICIPANTS AND FIRST RECORDED YEAR OF DEPARTURE BY COUNTRY

Country[a]	First Year	Participants:		
		Interviewed (N)	Weighted (N)	Weighted Per Cent
India	1951	1449	1594	8.4
Turkey	1949	1207	1569	8.2
Pakistan	1951	610	1281	6.7
Greece	1950	372	781	4.1
Jordan	1951	254	508	2.7
Israel	1951	369	443	2.3
Egypt	1951	217	434	2.3
Ethiopia	1951	197	315	1.7
Morocco	1958	147	191	1.0
Philippines	1951	510	1734	9.1
Thailand	1951	512	1690	8.9
China (Taiwan)	1951	619	1610	8.4
Korea	1955	524	1153	6.1
Vietnam	1954	402	804	4.2
Brazil	1940's	538	2045	10.7
Chile	1940's	427	1153	6.1
Ecuador	1940's	390	507	2.7
Costa Rica	1952	388	504	2.7
Nicaragua	1952	182	309	1.6
Jamaica	1953	122	122	.6
British Guiana	1954	81	97	.5
British Honduras	1953	78	101	.5
Surinam	1954	73	80	.4
Total		9668	19025	99.9

[a] These countries are grouped into the administrative regions used by AID. Surveys, with data sent to Washington too late to be included in this world wide report, have also been completed in the following countries: Bolivia, Peru, Japan, Iran, Tunisia, Libya, Sudan. Their results were collated with these for use in the "regional reports" on the survey of returned participants.

In all, 9,668 participants were interviewed, representing a total of 19,025 returned participants after weighting each country's contingent by its appropriate factor. This latter total is the basis for our analysis of the world wide survey data; at a few places in the report, for reasons specified, lesser numbers of participants' replies are used as a basis for analysis.

The principal unit of analysis in this study is the individual participant and his program. Although multinational in scope, the evaluation survey of returned participants was not intended to be used in comparing national contingents directly on the effectiveness of participant training. Much information about the political, economic and social settings of the program in each country would necessarily have to be considered together with these data in order to make any cross-national comparisons. Instead, as the objectives cited above make clear, the primary focus of the study was on each former participant, and the factors affecting his images and utilization of training. We have, therefore, made sparing use of inter-country comparisons of survey findings; a few are shown, mainly to give an idea of the range of variation on some of the more basic items.

One can approach the problem of interpreting these findings in several ways, depending upon the level of analysis and the intended audience. At the country (USAID) level, the results of the survey can be reported in fuller detail, and analysis of the data can be illuminated by an awareness of the concrete local conditions under which the program operates. Moreover, the analyst's familiarity with the ways in which training is integrated into U. S.-host country plans and projects enables him to stress those aspects of the study which are of greater interest or value to local officials, especially in planning future operations. At the world wide level, however, a different perspective must be adopted; the more generalized aspects of the study gain in importance. In selecting data and findings we have stressed those which had relevance or potential applicability for a wider audience. This report is directed primarily toward Agency officials and others whose interests or responsibilities transcend or cut across the local level. Inevitably, from such a wider perspective, findings will be interpreted or used differently, depending upon the particular orientation or needs of the readers. Some aspects of the study will be directly pertinent to one's work, while others will seem more "academic" in value. (Since follow-up studies of assistance programs are rare, we have occasionally pointed out the implications of a finding for issues of wider relevance and interest.) The capability that survey findings have, of serving diverse interests at varying levels of responsibility, is one of the principal arguments for conducting systematic evaluation studies such as this. The reader is referred back to the detailed table of contents to locate subjects of his special interest; the rest of the report may then be reviewed in a more cursory fashion.

The organization of the report follows the path of the participant from his selection for training to his current work situation. Chapter II deals with the characteristics of participants and the selection process. Chapter III covers the survey data relating to the pretraining period: planning, orientation, language skills, prior contacts with the USOM, etc. In Chapter IV the dimensions of training programs are analyzed, together with participants' evaluations of them. The analysis of data on the program sojourn is continued in Chapter V, which also contains general evaluations of the program by participants, supervisors and U. S. technicians. The main issue of the study, the employment and utilization of training by participants after returning home, is analyzed in Chapter VI. Finally, a few of the study's findings that seem to have more immediate administrative implications are briefly recapitulated in Chapter VII.

Because the programs are classified into various training fields that serve as pivotal points in their administration, we have sought to reanalyze the critical data in the survey from this standpoint. Appendix A contains this detailed review of survey findings from the perspective of each of the major fields of training: a "profile" of each is drawn, using the data to reveal similarities and contrasts among them. A second part of Appendix A contains an analysis of data from participants who were not trained in their specialty fields, but in some allied subject, and also data about the small group of participants who were trained more than once. Appendix B provides relevant documentation and references on the evaluation study.

II. PARTICIPANTS AND THEIR SELECTION

Introduction

Some Uses and Limits of Descriptive Data

The descriptive information on these participants can be employed in several ways. One is in drawing a detailed statistical portrait of former participants, showing their more typical or common attributes but also documenting the very diverse kinds of individuals whose needs have to be met by a training program. There are some essential points of similarity in the backgrounds of these people, but the important ways in which they differ should not be overlooked in a global assessment of participant training.

The differences among participants allow us to use these data to analyze the relations between various personal and occupational attributes, such as their age, or occupational status, or amount of work experience on the one hand, and their evaluations and use of their training once they have been home for a period of time. These status attributes or personal characteristics can be viewed as influences upon attitudes and behavior. Their use as an analytical tool was one of the explicit objectives to be attained by the evaluation survey; as the official policy statement put it: "To produce other reliable information . . . such as . . . the relevance of the age of the participant to the accomplishment of a successful training program and subsequent utilization . . . .[1]

Another small contribution already made by the collection of these data was perhaps less intended. It led to an up-dating of Mission records in the countries where the survey was conducted, since a complete census of former participants, as far as it was possible, was the indispensable first step in the process. Then, too, records on participants trained more than a decade earlier were scanty or less complete than on those more recently selected for training. By seeking out and interviewing participants who had been lost to view, the survey helped to fill gaps in basic information available to the U. S. Missions and the Agency, permitting the baselines for projecting trends to be more firmly established or set further back in time. These survey contributions might be labelled as leading to more effective "social bookkeeping."

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[1] See Appendix B for the text of this statement.

Beyond this, the survey data can be used to make some inferences about the past. Categories such as prior education or occupation at selection served to some extent as criteria for selecting participants. By observing patterns of change in the participant and program attributes we are often able to infer some underlying shifts in policy or administrative practices. Because of the wealth of its detailed information on participants, training programs, and the use to which training has been put, the survey can serve as a unique source for placing participant training in an historical perspective.

The Dimension of Time

Because of its broad significance, at several points we will make reference to the time dimension in these data. It also has a more specific relevance. Programs of training were experiences which occurred at given times and places, and these two parameters must be brought into our analysis. Another way in which the survey brings in the temporal dimension is in seeking information on some items for two points in time, usually at selection (or departure) for training, and at interview. Among these were age, occupational status, area of economic activity, employer and place of residence. We will use the phrases "at selection" or "at departure" interchangeably; even though some time may have elapsed between the two, the meaning of that initial point in time seems relatively uncomplicated and analytically comparable. This is less true for the later point in time, since interviewing was done over a period of two or more years in the countries whose survey data were pooled for this analysis. We will use "current" or "at interview" in our references to this period, since both represent the fact being discussed with comparable imprecision; the former is perhaps preferable, since the participant was responding to the questions in terms of his current situation, while the latter phrase connotes more the perspective of the survey analyst.

These data permit one to examine patterns of occupational mobility of several types, and to show how the training experience affected the participants' careers. Conversely, mobility of certain types may have exerted an influence on evaluations and uses of their training. For example, those who are currently (at interview) in the same job as the one held at selection are presumably less likely to view their program as having improved their job situation or prospects, and as a result may be less enthusiastic about training or make less than optimum use of it. Of course, mobility patterns must be evaluated also from the standpoint of how much time has passed, as an indicator of the opportunity for changes to have taken place. At several points in our analysis we will introduce some measures of mobility, another time-linked aspect of these descriptive data.

Some Considerations of Place

As noted, these data are applicable to the twenty-three countries in which the survey was completed as of the Fall of 1963. (Since then, results from seven others have reached AID in Washington.) This fact has direct relevance for our statistical portraits; had European countries been included in the evaluation study, the constellation of background characteristics of our participants would have been altered in some respects (for example, age or occupational status would reflect the greater seniority in age and occupational level of the sizable numbers of European Productivity Team trainees). In like manner, a few Latin American countries with large numbers of former participants have not entered the study; their absence restricts the generality of the findings. Other biases due to considerations of place are minor: former participants residing outside the major cities were sometimes slightly underrepresented among those with whom interviews were completed. But in numbers and in nature, those who were interviewed in all other regions of the underdeveloped world seem quite adequate as a basis for drawing relevant conclusions about participant training.

Considerations of place affect the variables and information items in the study in various ways, some of which are more fateful than others. Where these are known or suspected, we will temper our analysis accordingly. But we need not let methodological limitations (on the generality of our conclusions) blind us to the quite substantial ways in which these data can properly be employed. Especially is this the case when we assess the quality and variety of data, and the coverage that the survey was able to achieve, in a field--cross-national survey research--where pitfalls are far more prevalent than successes. No other body of comparable data exists or is likely to become available as a basis for the evaluation of many aspects of participant training and for the formulation of policy on a world wide bases.

Personal Characteristics of Participants

We will begin by reviewing some personal characteristics of participants. This will be followed by a description of various aspects of their occupational setting, and from these factors (which may have served directly or indirectly as criteria for their selection) we move to an analysis of their perceptions of the process of selection.

Age

By comparison with many of the better-known programs of international education and training, participant training is exceptional in its focus on mature individuals . The largest single grouping have been in their thirties, with a median age of 35. The age range of 30-50 would have included, until quite recently, about two-thirds of all trainees at the time of their departure. Twenty-seven per cent of the balance were younger than 30 years of age (about a third of whom were under 25) prior to 1961.

Official AID statistics on age for participants in more recent years, although not strictly comparable with those in the survey data nevertheless show clearly that the proportion of younger selectees has been increasing rapidly, reflecting the growing proportions of African and Latin American participants each year. In FY 1964, for example, almost twice as many were under 30 years of age as was true in the years prior to 1955 (Table 2.1).

The ages of returned participants were, of course, associated with other aspects of their status at selection. Younger men also had less experience in their work specialties, were lower in occupational status, more frequently single, and so on. These kinds of relationships will be left largely unreported here. We will refer to other concomitants of age on occasion, since it is substantially related to the types of training which trainees received, and to evaluations of the training experience. Age has strategic value too, being an attribute of participants that is within the realm of administrative control or influence in particular countries or fields of training, through the selection process.

TABLE 2.1.--AGE OF PARTICIPANTS ENTERING TRAINING:
YEARS UP TO FY 1964[a]
(In Percentages)

Age		All Participants[b]		U. S. Arrivals[c]			
		Before 1955	1955 to FY 1961	FY 1961	FY 1962	FY 1963	FY 1964
Under 30		24.4	27.7	34.6	34.2	50.3	46.5
30-39		45.3	41.9	37.1	39.5	35.3	37.0
40-49		24.2	24.2	19.7	19.1	11.8	13.7
50 and over		6.0	6.2	8.7	7.2	2.5	2.7
Total	%	99.9	100.0	100.1	100.0	99.9	99.9
	(N)	(4207)	(14596)	(6044)	(5000)	(4720)	(5764)

[a] Excludes all whose age was not ascertained.

[b] Data from the surveys of returned participants in 23 countries.

[c] From the "Annual Report on Participant Training" (Fiscal Years 1960-64). Office of International Training, Agency for International Development. The age categories used therein differ by one year; in this comparison they are combined as: Up to 30, 31-40, 41-50, 51 and over. Also, not all surveyed participants were "U. S. arrivals"; about one in six never came to the U. S.

Sex: Women as Participants

Participant training has been largely a man's world: 89 per cent of all respondents were men, with proportions over the years ranging from 84 to 100 per cent. Figures for the most recent year, FY 1964, show that men constituted 92 per cent of all U. S. arrivals. This preponderance is not surprising, since the status of women, especially in the realms of technical and specialist work, is even less elevated in the underdeveloped world than in our own country.

What can be said about the women, one out of every nine participants who have taken training? First, their employment is concentrated primarily in two areas: in Education (43%), particularly as teachers, and in Health (21%), mainly nursing and public health, and as laboratory aides. (Other occupational areas where women were active: Public Services (12%), chiefly in libraries and social welfare, and Agriculture (12%), as home economists.) These are, of course, the main areas in which women in our own country take advanced training prior to finding employment in professional and technical capacities. In fact, women participants are clustered heavily in those two statuses; over two-thirds (69%) were thus occupied at selection, as opposed to just over half (53%) of the men participants. More women than men were employed directly by their government when selected (86% vs. 74%); although few in numbers, proportionally twice as many were not employed (or students) when selected.

Another set of interrelated characteristics which distinguish women participants is their age, prior education and marital status. They were younger: sixty-two per cent of the women were less than thirty-five years old at selection (vs. 48% of men). They were less often university-trained; over a third (38%) had never attended a university. But perhaps the most dramatic difference is in their marital status. For while almost four in five of the men were married, only one-third of the women were (Table 2.2).

TABLE 2.2.--SEX AND MARITAL STATUS
(In Percentages)

Marital Status		Men	Women	Total[a]
Married		78	33	73
Single		21	67	26
N. A.		1	-	1
Total	%	100	100	100
	(N)	(16894)	(2123)	(19017)

[a] Excludes N. A. on sex; (N=8).

The nature of the programs which women were offered dovetailed neatly with their backgrounds. Being single, they could be more readily programmed for longer periods of training, which would enhance their professional skills more. Such subjects are usually acquired through training in academic settings. Three-quarters of the women had some form of university training in their programs, over a third of whom earned a degree. By comparison only 44 per cent of the men were sent for academic training, just over a quarter of whom earned a degree. The duration of their training reflects this pattern: over half (56%) of the women were in training longer than a year, compared with less than a third of the men.

There are a few other sex-linked differences in survey findings dealing with the training experience, but they are more fundamentally related to the specific character of the programs upon which both men and women embarked.

This brief depiction of the female contingent can be concluded with the observation that they have been less mobile in their careers since they have returned home than their male counterparts. Two in five are in exactly the same job currently as they held when selected, and fewer have changed jobs at any time since their return from training. Their occupational fate even as professionals with additional specialized training still seems to have been conditioned by their inferior social status as women.

Marital Status: The Impact of Wider Obligations

Marital status is associated with age, of course, and among these participants with sex, as we have just seen. As a concomitant, those who were single went on longer programs, almost half (47%) for longer than one year (vs. 30% of those who were married). More significantly, marital status can be thought to have an influence on reactions to several aspects of training, arising from the greater obligations of those who are married. On the average, they can be expected to have more reasons for concern with the adequacy of their training allowance. If alone, they would tend to feel greater obligations to those at home, whether from objective need (e.g., if their government is remiss in providing dependent's support), or more subjective considerations. If accompanied by their spouse, their transit and training expenses would be larger and, probably, less easily anticipated or planned for before departure. In both instances, dissatisfaction with money would be expected to be more frequent among married participants, and indeed this was so. Thirty per cent of them rated their training allowance for travel and living costs as "too little," vs. 25 per cent of single participants. The difference, though small, was in the predicted direction.

A second way in which family obligations might affect reactions has to do with the relatively greater freedom of single people to leave on shorter notice. A greater need by married participants to make more complex arrangements could give rise to a more critical view of the planning and orientation phase of their programs, in particular the way the timing of their departure was handled. However, it did not prove to be so; satisfaction with this or other specific aspects of orientation was not related to participants' marital status.

A Note on Culture and Personality Variables

There are many other important considerations arising from differences in cultural and personality traits which could materially affect a participant's learning process, his social or emotional adjustment to the sojourn, his resourcefulness or persistence in seeking to distill and apply the lessons of training upon return. Other research studies have sought to establish the role of these elements in the attitudes and behavior of foreign students, using a variety of techniques. Most of them, however, have been studies of single or only a few nationality groupings of foreign students, and a wide range of cultural or personality differences could only begin to be systematically explored. Some useful hypotheses have emerged from this body of research, which await further testing on new populations of foreign students.[1]

This survey of foreign nationals did not inquire directly into sensitive matters; it contained no items which explored variations in cultural values or attitudes about political and economic conditions. Its focus was vocational; evaluation was directed at the administrative character of the program, and the occupational outcomes of training. As a result, we have only hints of the play of more subtle personal considerations here and there in the data, particularly in responses to open-ended questions on difficulties and dislikes relating to the training experience. Other studies of participants which make use of different research techniques could explore in greater depth and detail the role, for example, of: personality, kinship, class, ethnicity, and nationality (to name only a few) in the stresses and responses of individuals during their sojourn and in its aftermath. The limited use of marital status as a variable in our analysis, which occasioned this brief digression, is suggestive of the practical programmatic concerns to which such data can apply.

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[1] The key volume in a coordinated series of studies during the 1950's, which seeks to summarize and extend the body of research findings is: Claire Selltiz, June R. Christ, Joan Havel and Stuart W. Cook, Attitudes and Social Relations of Foreign Students in the United States. (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1963). A critical review of a great deal of past work--together with an extensive bibliography--is contained in a report prepared for the State Department several years ago. See: Margaret Cormack, An Evaluation of Research on Educational Exchange. Report prepared for the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, U. S. Department of State. (Mimeo: Brooklyn College, August 1962). A recent work contains a useful annotated bibliography: U. S. Department of State, Bureau of Intelligence and Research, Cross-cultural Education: A Bibliography of Government-sponsored and Private Research on Foreign Students and Trainees in the U. S. and in Other Countries, 1946-1964. (External Research Paper: Washington, D. C., April 1965). The National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA) has put out several compendia of on-going studies; as a research area, international education shows no signs of any lessening in scholarly activity or interest.

Prior Education and Training

Participant training is primarily a strategy for imparting new occupational skills of a more technical or specialized character to people who hold or will soon assume positions having a crucial bearing on national development projects. At this point we will explore the participants' education and training prior to selection, as an indicator of their personal achievements and status (relative to the spread of higher education in developing nations) and also as an implicit criterion for their selection.

Much information of a detailed nature on this topic was gathered from available records and during the interview. Among the items were: years of formal education, special schooling, university training, types of earned degrees, fields of study, and so on. One difficulty in analyzing these materials (with which researchers in international education are only too familiar) is that the great diversity of educational systems around the world renders comparisons treacherous. This problem is severe enough when research is restricted to countries whose systems are patterned after the English or European continental models, but in our case Chinese, Indian and Arabic systems are also among those represented in participants' backgrounds. Serious problems exist, for example, in locating comparable points in total years of education which divide elementary, secondary and higher education, or in equating first degrees and more advanced or professional ones. Distinctions such as these are closely related to important social status considerations, such as the relative ease of access to higher levels of education, or the tradition that dictates a professional degree in law or medicine as necessary in order to enter into high-level nonprofessional positions. As a result, our analysis deals primarily with roughly comparable but less refined aspects of education: the achievement of a degree, some university work, or none; training at some specialized school or institute, or none. Other facets of the participants' educational histories will be discussed more briefly.

As might be expected this is an extraordinarily well educated group. Prior to their selection two-thirds (65%) held a university or college degree, and another 8 per cent had done some university work.[1] Five sixths of this group attended universities in their own country; those who were educated abroad tended to earn advanced degrees (for example, at the M.A. and Ph.D. levels) most often. The principal countries in which overseas degrees were earned were (in order of magnitude): United States, India, Japan, Great Britain, Pakistan, France, Germany and Lebanon. Together, degrees earned in these eight countries accounted for three-quarters of all those which had been acquired abroad. About two-thirds of all degrees were at the bachelor's level (Table 2.3).

TABLE 2.3.--PRIOR FORMAL EDUCATION: TYPE OF DEGREE BY LOCATION OF UNIVERSITY
(In Percentages)

Type of Degree	Attended University		Total[a]
	At Home	Abroad	
Bachelor's level	70	50	67
Master's level	10	24	12
Ph.D. level	2	8	3
M.D.	9	10	9
Law	7	6	7
Other Professional	2	2	2
Total %	100	100	100
(N)	(10389)	(1817)	(12206)

[a] Excludes NA on either or both items (N=189); also those who did not attend a university (N=5061), or attended but earned no degree (N=1569).

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[1] It is recognized that the act of earning a degree or attending a university has different meanings, and does not imply equivalent preparation for occupations or professions. But in all of these countries, only a fraction of the population has such opportunities; thus, this can be taken as an indicator of high relative achievement.

There is a distinct and important trend in the data on degree-recipients for the years covered by the survey. The proportion of participants who had not earned a degree prior to selection has more than doubled: from 19 per cent of all who left prior to 1951 to 41 per cent of those who left for training in 1959 or later, with the proportion increasing consistently for the years in between. This finding may indicate a substantial lessening in the importance of formal education as a selection criterion. Some changes in the nature of training programs which will be shown are presumably associated with the declining levels of participants' formal education; needs for training of certain kinds will vary with existing abilities and skills.

Two facts can be pointed out about those who had no university training. First, they were younger: at selection more than a third were under 30. (Conversely, only among the youngest group does the proportion without prior degrees differ significantly from other age strata: two-thirds of those under 25 had no university training, compared with only one-third of other participants.) Second, one compensatory element in their background is the greater extent to which they had received some specialty training in their occupational areas. (This training was defined as of an advanced, vocational or technical character, but not given at a college or university.) More than half (57%) of the nonuniversity-trained people had attended some course of a specialized character, while only one in six who held degrees had also done so. Thus, while less well educated prior to selection, most of them had been previously exposed to a vocationally oriented period of training. Only 11 per cent of the entire sample had had neither sort of formal preparation (Table 2.4).

The subject matter areas of specialty training reveal their vocational character: industrial trades, agricultural trades, normal school teaching, business and commercial skills, and the like. In later chapters we will review the subsequent uses and evaluations of training by less educated participants, to explore the implications of their selection, compared with those who were better educated.

A Note on Education and Participant Evaluations

A few other implications of previous schooling for participant training can be mentioned. First, the high average level of education of these trainees should be kept in mind when raising the issue of how "degree-minded" they were in evaluating their programs. It is a commonplace in discussions of foreign students that to many of them earning a degree is a primary goal, and other values of the whole experience are often heavily compromised by whether or not they were permitted to or did earn one. This is not surprising; no less than in the U.S. formal education and the degrees earned in the process confer special prestige and advantage, particularly in countries where access to higher education is restricted by a limited number of openings or socially structured differences in privilege. One's life chances are, as a result, often largely determined at this early stage. These educational differences can lead to contrasting evaluative perspectives among participants. Those who were younger or less well educated might be expected to feel a particular satisfaction at being selected, since training offers them the hope of compensating for serious deficiencies in their past education, as well as a chance to learn specific skills.

TABLE 2.4.--PRIOR FORMAL EDUCATION: SPECIALTY SCHOOL TRAINING BY UNIVERSITY ATTENDANCE
(In Percentages)

Attendance at Specialty School		Attended University		Did Not Attend	Total
		Earned Degree	No Degree		
Yes		16	28	57	28
No		84	72	43	72
Total[a]	%	100	100	100	100
	(N)	(12097)	(1518)	(5055)	(18670)

[a] Excludes N.A. on university attendance, or on specialty school training, or both (N=355).

For others, with their credentials for entry into some desired career already secured, participant training will have somewhat different attractions and uses, perhaps providing them with some added authority or personal stature which may prove useful when seeking to introduce change, or to be promoted. But one can also expect more discerning and critical reactions from them, arising from their broader or richer educational and work experiences. For them, training may be of more marginal utility, or less exciting an experience because they have already been abroad, or because the gains of training do not adequately compensate them for the disruption in their relatively settled routines of work and career. Still, a training program that matches felt needs, and complements rather than overlaps with prior educational experiences is likely to contribute to personal and professional growth, whatever the trainee's previous level of preparation.

One final comment relates to the increase in the numbers of less well educated selectees more recently. In most nations receiving technical assistance, the layer of "middle manpower"--managers, professionals and technicians, or of college-trained people in general--is rather thin. A prolonged program of assistance of any size which seeks to develop human resources will need to incorporate measures that stimulate growth in the numbers of such people, perhaps by supporting an expansion of local or regional educational institutions, as an adjunct to the provision of advanced or special training in the U. S. or elsewhere. If not, some dilution in the level of educational preparation of later groups of participants is likely to occur, making necessary a chain of adjustments in the goals and substance of training in succeeding years. As with most issues in development theory and practice, one usually has to pursue a set of mutually supporting programs, rather than concentrate on one strategy alone.

Prior education, principally in the form of university training, is an important influence on participants' evaluations of training, as well as a factor in determining what sort of training program is most needed. As a result, we will refer to it fairly frequently in later analysis.

Residence and Mobility

The data on participants' places of residence which were recorded for two points in time, at selection and at interview, can be scrutinized for their bearing on the process of selection, and as an index of the concentration or dispersion of the rather scarce supply of trained manpower which these people represent, in each of the surveyed countries. We will briefly report on where participants were and are, the main patterns of mobility which they have manifested, and, by inference, how centralized are the vital functions they are performing as part of the trained cadre of development workers in their countries.

First, a majority of participants (59%) came from their capital cities, and they have returned there: of those who were living there when selected, more than nine in ten (92%) still do. Lesser proportions of the over one-quarter who, when selected, had been in provincial cities (whose definitions varied with local usage or geographic distinctions) or of the one in eight from rural towns and villages were still there when interviewed. Second, the main drift was, generally, *away* from the countryside, and in particular *to* the capital: over one-half of all who changed locales were, when interviewed, found in their capital cities, most coming from provincial centers rather than directly from rural settlements. The flow of trained manpower to the countryside was minimal; taking provincial cities and rural areas together, they lost twice as many participants as they gained.

Mobility was, of course, related to the passage of time, but not as strongly as might be supposed: while ninety per cent of those back less than two years were in the same locale, three-quarters of those back seven years or more from training were still in the locale in which they lived when selected (two-thirds of whom were and are capital city dwellers). Those back for intermediate durations show corresponding levels of mobility. But the capital city remains the main destination of most who have been residentially mobile at whatever point in their posttraining career.

The concentration of selectees (and those who have changed their locales) in the capitals of their countries is probably a function of two key facts: most of the participants were relatively senior government employees, and governmental administration in most of the surveyed countries is highly centralized. No special characteristics were found to distinguish those in any of the three locales, except for the older, more experienced and higher level participants to be proportionately even more often residents of their capitals.

Perhaps the most striking contrasts in the data on residence are found among the *countries* in the survey. The tendency for the capital to loom large in the selection and retention of trainees varies markedly. In some countries, India and Israel for example, the dispersion of participants among the other locales has been quite high. In others, such as Egypt, Surinam and Thailand, participants were and are predominantly concentrated in their capitals, while a few, Brazil and Ethiopia for example, are more notable for the amount of residential mobility their participants have experienced.[1] (Table 2.5.) The patterns revealed in these data, however, can only be interpreted properly with reference to local factors, a mode of analysis which is restricted to the separate country reports. All we can do is demonstrate the intriguing fact of their existence. The general pattern across countries is summarized in Figure 1.

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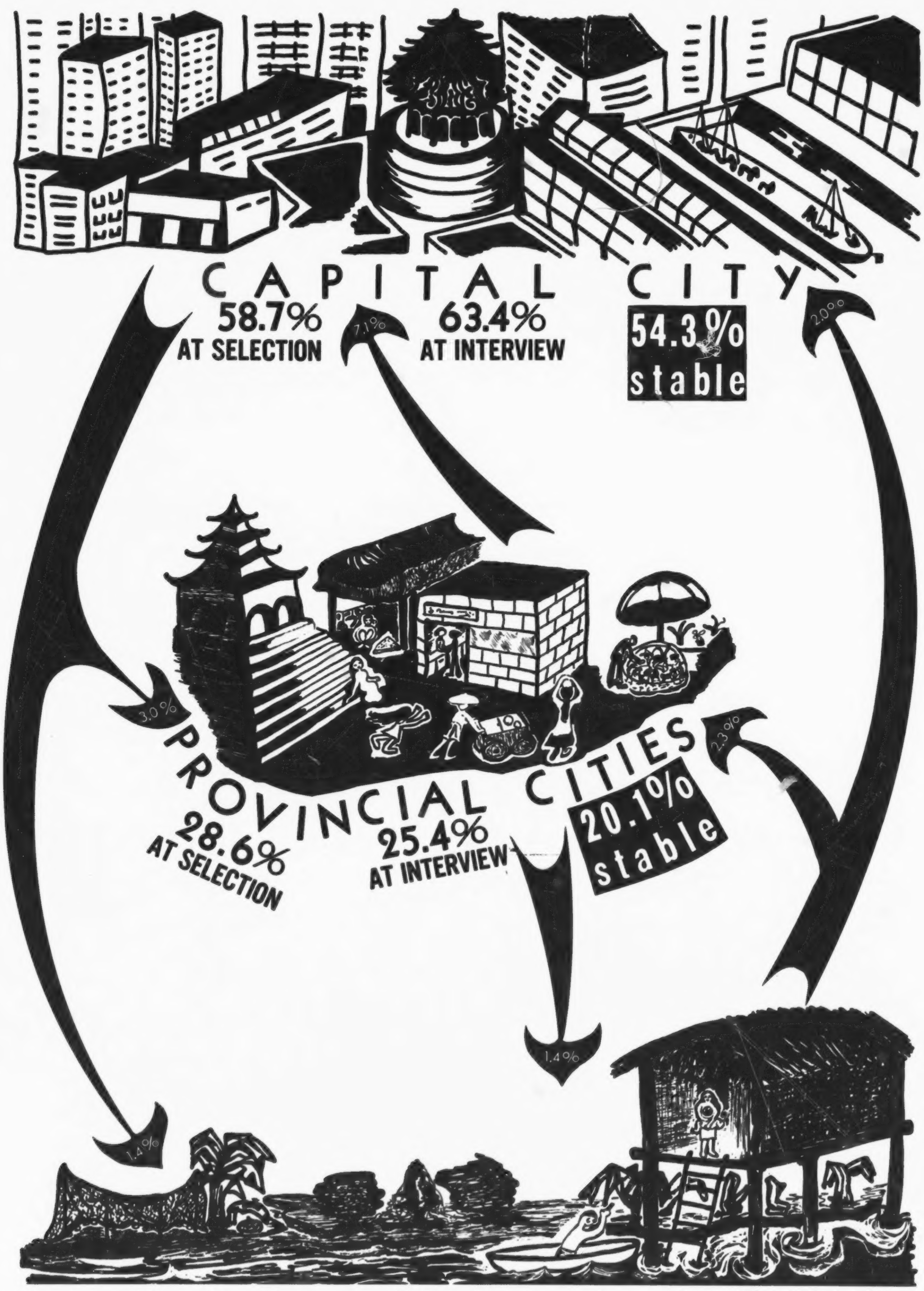
[1] Some of these data may underestimate the extent of *rural* residence; in a few countries a tendency was noted to concentrate interviewing in or closer to the capital or major urban centers, because of the greater cost and difficulty of reaching more distantly located participants.

TABLE 2.5.--RESIDENTIAL MOBILITY PATTERNS OF PARTICIPANTS
(AT TIME OF SELECTION AND AT INTERVIEW) BY COUNTRY
(In Percentages)

Country	Residentially Stable (Same at Both Times)			Residentially Mobile	Total[a] Number (=100%)
	Capital City Area	Provincial Centers	Rural Area		
Egypt	94.0	1.4	3.3	1.4	(430)
Surinam	91.6	2.8	1.4	4.2	(79)
Thailand	87.9	7.2	1.6	3.3	(1686)
Chile	76.8	12.9	1.6	8.7	(1150)
Vietnam	76.2	11.5	-	12.3	(780)
Korea	75.2	12.0	0.4	12.4	(1153)
Costa Rica	67.4	13.2	10.1	9.3	(502)
British Honduras	65.4	-	21.8	12.7	(101)
Ecuador	64.5	21.1	2.8	11.8	(506)
Greece	59.4	23.4	3.8	13.5	(781)
Nicaragua	58.2	26.9	1.1	13.7	(309)
Jordan	56.2	30.3	2.8	10.7	(508)
Philippines	54.4	8.1	20.9	16.6	(1707)
Ethiopia	53.9	8.4	2.1	35.6	(306)
Jamaica	51.6	16.4	12.3	19.7	(122)
Pakistan	49.2	14.6	13.2	23.0	(1277)
British Guiana	48.7	7.5	30.0	13.8	(96)
China (Taiwan)	47.1	21.2	12.8	18.9	(1607)
Brazil	41.3	10.9	5.8	42.1	(2025)
Turkey	38.7	34.4	3.5	23.4	(1559)
Morocco	33.1	51.4	14.8	1.0	(185)
Israel	18.0	69.3	5.9	6.8	(426)
India	9.6	51.6	22.1	16.7	(1585)
Total	54.3	20.1	8.3	17.3	(18880)

[a] Excludes N.A. on places of residence at either or both points in time (N=145).


CAPITAL CITY
58.7%
AT SELECTION
63.4%
AT INTERVIEW
54.3%
stable
7.1%
2.0%
3.0%
PROVINCIAL CITIES
28.6%
AT SELECTION
25.4%
AT INTERVIEW
20.1%
stable
2.3%
1.4%
1.4%
RURAL VILLAGES
12.6%
AT SELECTION
11.1%
AT INTERVIEW
8.3%
stable

RESIDENCE AND MOBILITY AMONG PARTICIPANTS

FIGURE NO. 1

Occupational Characteristics of Participants

Information about the participants' occupational settings when selected for training and in its aftermath is essential to an understanding of their needs, and their evaluations and uses of training. In large measure the limits on what training can achieve are set by a few occupational dimensions. For example, the amount of work experience they had prior to selection affects their reactions to the substance of training. The occupational status (or level) of the participants has a direct bearing upon the kind of training that will be deemed most relevant. And, one obviously crucial prerequisite for effective use of training is an adequate fit between the substance of training and the participant's work. Whatever other social or political objectives the program serves, it is principally as a strategy for the effective development of human resources that it must be judged. The occupational consequences of training are the primary measures of this objective. We will briefly review the basic information on the occupational settings of the participants at the time of selection; our analysis of occupational mobility and occupation-linked influences on their programs and attitudes will appear in later chapters.

Occupations: Status, Experience and Economic Sector

Information was gethered on these aspects: type of employer, years of work experience, occupational status and the economic sector in which they worked. We will take up each in turn, and also show their interrelations.

In many if not most countries of the underdeveloped world the national government is the primary (or sole) agency engaged in development planning and programs. This fact is reflected clearly in the information on the locus of employment of these participants: three-quarters of them were employees of some government agency, and an additional 6 per cent were working in some nationalized industry. Thus, four out of every five participants were selected from the public sector, with half of the remainder coming from private business or industry; smaller numbers were from trade unions, the free professions, other types of employment, or, as students, from the ranks of the economically inactive. And, while the government has remained the largest single source of past participants, a trend toward more selectees from the private sector is evident, especially since 1955 when ICA was established during the

Eisenhower presidency. The proportion of trainees who were in private business more than tripled over the years covered by our survey: from about 5 per cent in the earliest period to over 17 per cent more recently (Table 2.6).[1]

TABLE 2.6.--PARTICIPANTS' EMPLOYERS AT SELECTION BY YEAR OF DEPARTURE
(In Percentages)

Employer		Year of Departure				Total
		Up to 1951	1951-1954	1955-1958	1959-1961	
Government		89.9	82.6	75.4	69.7	76.0
Private business		5.0	3.9	9.2	17.4	9.7
Nationalized industry		-	4.4	6.5	5.3	5.7
Professions		0.9	4.2	3.1	2.4	3.1
Trade unions		2.0	1.4	1.6	2.8	1.8
Student		1.6	2.4	2.3	0.5	1.9
All other		0.5	1.1	1.9	1.9	1.7
Total[a]	%	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9
	(N)	(410)	(3867)	(10673)	(3807)	(18757)

[a] Excludes N.A. on either attribute (N=268).

The occupational status that each participant held when selected is perhaps the most important fact about his work situation, since the focus of the training program as a development strategy can best be seen in these terms. The occupations of these participants ranged from cabinet minister to cabinet maker, but selectees at those status extremes are relatively scarce.[2] The more typical participant held some professional or middle-level administrative post in his employing organization. The largest single group, over a third of the total, consisted of teachers and scientists, and if the engineers are added to their ranks the category of professionals includes almost half of the participants. The next largest group, almost 30 per cent of the total, was the stratum of managers or administrative officials. Less than one per cent were from the topmost ranks in the nation, but about 7 per cent came from the level immediately below the top. A closer examination of this elite group reveals that their jobs were largely outside the political system of legislators, ministers and judges; presumably such people would have come to the U. S. under less vocationally oriented auspices or exchange programs.

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[1] The absence of the substantial number of European private industry participants during the Marshall Plan years from these survey data should be recalled here. The trend is valid only for selection patterns among the underdeveloped countries' participants.

[2] The classification of occupational status was based on List I "Occupational Category" of ICA Manual Order 1363.7. For our analysis we have used broader categories derived from that scheme, since the information was classified in too much detail to be used in cross-tabulations. The full set of categories for occupational status at selection and at interview, together with their associated frequencies among the participants is presented on pp. 158-159.

There have also been relatively few trainees from the other end of the occupational status structure, and few (less than 2%) who were classified as "students." Participant training is thus seen to be primarily aimed at the crucial middle layer of manpower, the professionals, technicians and officials who are in positions with sizable authority and responsibility for conducting cooperative development projects. These ranks will supply the senior civil servants and trained cadre for later development planning and programs as well.

There are some variations in the status of participants who were employed in different work settings. Those in government employ or working in nationalized industries are so numerous as to determine the over-all pattern. Participants in the private sector (notably in business, industry or the trade unions) show a greater proportion of higher-level administrators and correspondingly fewer selectees from the ranks of professionals (Table 2.7).

TABLE 2.7.--OCCUPATIONAL STATUS BY EMPLOYER AT SELECTION
(In Percentages)

Occupational Status	Employer at Selection						Total
	Government	Nationalized Industry	Private Business	Professions	Trade Union	All Other	
Top and secondary policy-makers, executives	5.9	7.5	17.4	2.7	49.1	7.4	7.9
Managers, administrative officials	30.4	30.0	31.9	20.1	21.3	23.3	29.9
Professions: scientists, engineers, teachers	49.0	46.0	23.5	68.4	14.4	58.1	46.4
Subprofessions, technicians	9.7	13.5	5.4	6.7	9.8	5.8	9.4
Foremen, craftsmen, and workers	4.8	2.9	21.8	2.0	5.4	5.4	6.3
Total[a] %	99.8	99.9	100.0	99.9	100.0	99.9	99.9
(N)	(14094)	(1060)	(1793)	(586)	(348)	(313)	(18194)

[a] Excludes students (N=332) and N.A. on either attribute (N=499).

From the data presented so far we would expect the participants also to show rather extensive amounts of work experience in their specialties; and this was the case. Omitting the student group, only about one in eight had specialized for less than two years at selection, while three in eight had more than ten years' experience. The median for the group as a whole was 7.8 years of specialized work experience, with those of higher and lower status showing more than the middle strata of professionals and subprofessional trainees (Table 2.8).

The extent of their work experience in specialty fields is related to the age of the participants. As one may anticipate, the older ones were more experienced and the youngest group (which includes the students) shows the highest proportion with no work experience at all. The total number of years they have worked is, of course, greater than is revealed here, since these percentages refer only to their most recent identifiable work specialty.

TABLE 2.8.--TIME IN WORK SPECIALTY AND MEDIAN YEARS BY OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF PARTICIPANTS AT SELECTION

Occupational Status	Time in Specialty (In Percentages)			Total Number[a] (=100%)	Median Years of Experience
	Less Than 2 Years	Two to 10 Years	Ten Years or More		
Top and secondary policy-makers, executives	7.9	34.2	57.9	(1402)	10+
Managers, administrative officials	12.1	45.3	42.6	(5378)	8.5
Professions: scientists, engineers, teachers	13.4	51.8	34.8	(8538)	7.3
Subprofessions, technicians	23.0	52.0	25.0	(1673)	4.8
Foreman, craftsman, and workers	14.5	43.9	41.5	(1126)	8.2
Total	13.5	48.1	38.4	(18117)	7.8

[a] Excludes students (N=332) and N.A. on either attribute (N=576).

The seniority in age, work experience and occupational status of these trainees sharply distinguishes participant training from other educational exchange programs. These facts, which reflect the participants' generally more favored positions in their own social systems, are crucial in forming a composite social image of the otherwise diverse nature of the people entering training. They exert a strong influence upon participants' reactions to their training experience.

Another aspect of the participants' work setting when selected was their area of economic activity, or economic sector.[1] Even after combining individual fields of work into broad categories, we found that participants were widely distributed across the various economic sectors. The educational area, primarily at the university level, was the single largest sector, with over a fifth (21%) of all participants, followed by government administration (17%) and agriculture (16%). Manufacturing and mining accounted for almost 10 per cent of participants' work fields, and medical services for another 8 per cent. The other (approximately one-quarter) participants were widely scattered among a half-dozen other areas. The survey produced data on this aspect of their occupations both at selection and at interview, making it possible to see which areas gained and lost participants in the interim. (We will discuss this later on, in dealing with occupational mobility.)

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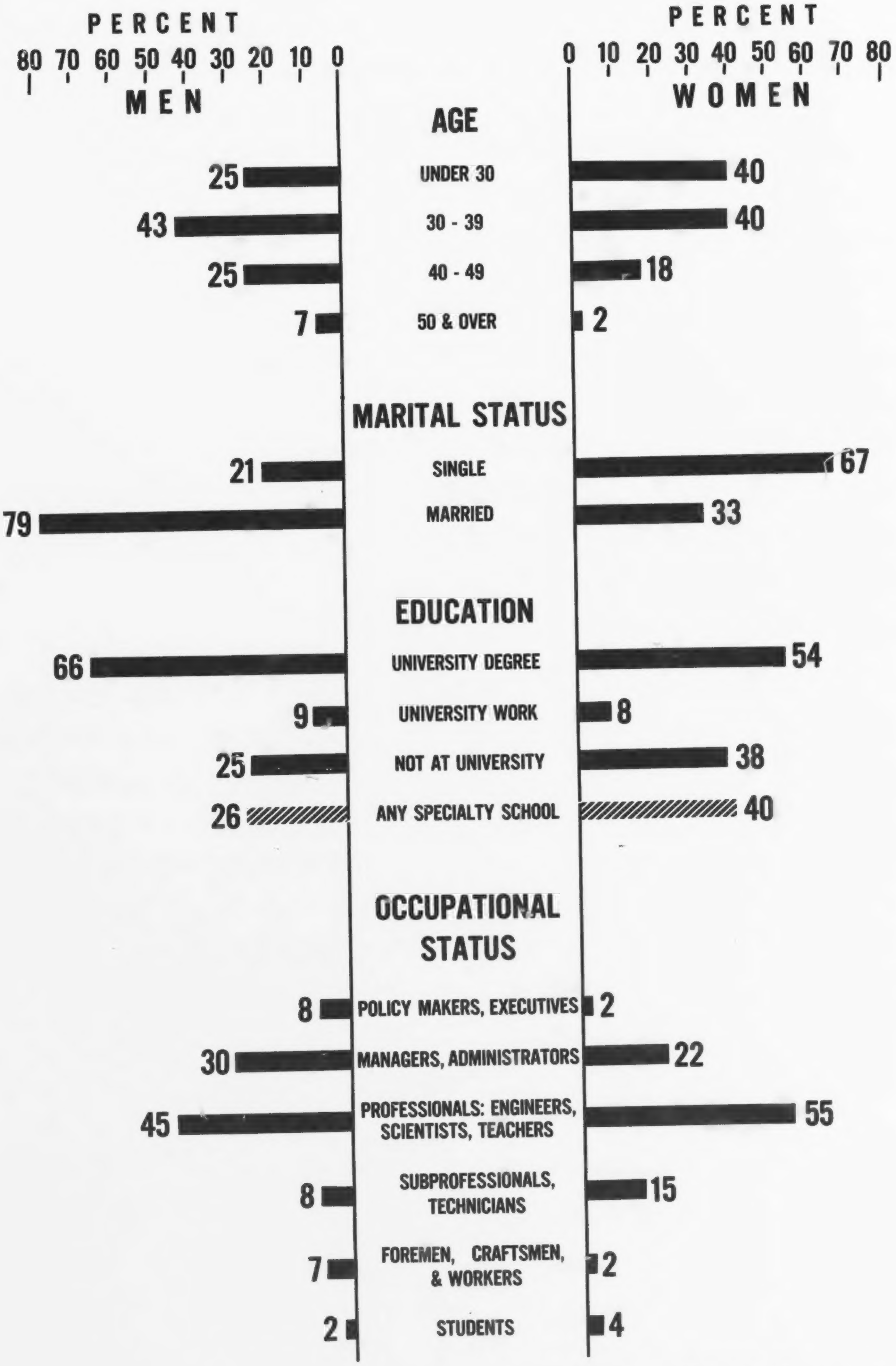
[1] This classification was taken from List II "Classification of Economic Activities" in Manual Order 1363.7 of the Agency (then ICA). Again, as with occupational status, we had to use major groupings for cross-tabulations, rather than the very elaborate set of categories used in classifying the surveyed participants. The original set of categories together with their associated frequencies among the participants both at selection and at interview are presented on pp. 162-163.

This classification by sectors is fairly broad in nature, and less directly relevant for a consideration of development strategy than is a classification of participants by subject matter fields of training. Both variables contain some ambiguities and overlapping categories; we will make more extensive use of the latter.

The data we have presented in this section on personal and occupational attributes of the participants help to define more precisely the kinds of people whom participant training is meant to serve, as a strategy for developing human resources. They also represent criteria which were in varying degrees relevant to the process by which participants were chosen, although our conclusions on this topic were inferential in character. A summary of some of them is depicted in Figure 2, shown for men and women participants. Now we will explore the selection process more intensively and directly, analyzing data from three sources: all of the participants, and the work supervisors and some U. S. technicians who knew the surveyed participants at the time of their selection.

The Selection Process

Ideally, in order to assess the operation of a selection or screening process one needs information about those who dropped out or were rejected as well as those who passed through it successfully. By comparing these groups one can identify critical junctures in the process, and gauge the importance of various criteria or circumstances in being selected or rejected. We have data only from those who went through the process, received training, and returned home. This group is inadequate for a full analysis of how the selection process worked. Nevertheless, their answers showed enough similarity to reveal the prevailing beliefs about selection, as well as certain departures from the general norms.



SOME PARTICIPANT CHARACTERISTICS AT SELECTION

FIGURE NO. 2

The first step in being selected was usually not one initiated by the participant. Only one in six (16%) made an application to be sent for training, while the great majority were invited or selected to go by others. Among the applicants, personal contacts, mainly arising from the work situation, were the primary sources for first hearing about participant training. Over a third mentioned their work supervisor or some work colleague as the initial source for information, and 14 per cent mentioned a U. S. Mission official; friends or former participants were cited infrequently. Some formal announcement or written circular was mentioned by over a quarter (28%) of the applicants.

The importance of a participant's work supervisor, noted here for the first time, will be a recurrent theme of our analysis. His role and that of various activities of the U. S. Mission are two of the most powerful influences upon the conduct and outcome of the training program. And they are interrelated in complex and often mutually supportive ways, as we will show.

The Selection Agent

All participants were asked to name the person or agency they believed to have actually selected them for training. Few mentioned more than one, and in the views of a majority (51%) the key person in the process was their work supervisor. The pattern of beliefs about selection agents varied sharply when a participant's type of employment is taken into account. For example, those in nationalized industries and the professions named their supervisors much more frequently than those in the private sector as the one who selected them (Table 2.9).

TABLE 2.9.--PARTICIPANTS' BELIEFS ABOUT THEIR SELECTION AGENT BY TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT AT SELECTION
(In Percentages)

Selection Agent		Type of Employment						Total[c]
		Nationalized Industry	Professions	Government	Trade Union	Private Business	Student	
Work supervisor		73	70	54	32	21	16	51
Ministry, government official		11	8	21	3	13	21	19
U. S. Mission		6	10	9	13	16	13	10
Special board		4	4	3	4	10	4	4
Union, trade association		-[a]	-[a]	1	42	16	0	3
University		1	2	2	-[a]	2	7	3
All others[b]		4	3	5	3	13	32	6
Don't know, N. A.		1	3	5	3	9	7	5
Total	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	101
	(N)	(1064)	(587)	(14270)	(349)	(1813)	(363)	(19025)

[a] Less than .5%.

[b] Category includes "selected myself," "won scholarship," "my employer."

[c] Total includes those with "other" and "N.A." as employers (N=579).

In the eyes of the participants the role of the U. S. Mission was minor; those highest or lowest in occupational status were somewhat more likely to assign to it final responsibility for their selection, mentioning their supervisors correspondingly less often. But the Mission had a significant indirect influence: the closer the contacts (through work) participants had with the Mission prior to selection the more often were work supervisors seen as the agents of selection. Almost two-thirds of participants who were working for or with USOM[1] (most on a full-time basis) named their supervisor as their selection agent, in contrast to less than half of those with no prior contacts with the Mission (Table 2.10).

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[1] USOM stands for U. S. Operations Mission, established under ICA in countries where aid programs required separate administration. Now, they are usually identified as USAID; we have used both terms, or referred to them as the Mission, throughout the report.

TABLE 2.10.--PARTICIPANTS' VIEWS OF SELECTION AGENT
BY PRIOR WORK CONTACTS WITH U. S. MISSION
(In Percentages)

Selection Agent	Prior USOM Contacts At Selection			Total
	Worked For/With USOM	Had Any Other Contacts	Had No Previous Contacts	
Work supervisor	65	57	44	51
Ministry, government official	13	16	21	19
U. S. Mission	12	11	9	10
All others	10	16	26	20
Total[a] %	100	100	100	100
(N)	(4001)	(3426)	(11354)	(18781)

[a] Excludes N.A. on prior contacts (N=244).

What seems to be involved here can be stated as a fact and a surmise. One's supervisor is hardly likely to be less closely related to the Mission than a participant himself; in some instances he will have been in its employ too. And it is good sense and good policy for the Mission to have involved supervisory personnel as broadly as possible in their subordinates' training programs, especially in their selection, in hopes of ensuring more effective subsequent use of training. We will explore other important concomitants of prior contact with the U. S. Mission subsequently.

Views of Supervisors and Technicians

So far we have looked at the selection process through the eyes of participants. The other two groups from whom we obtained information, their work supervisors and U. S. technicians, were asked about their own roles in the selection of individual participants. They also gave their views on the process of selection as part of a general evaluation of aspects of participants' training. Information from their current work supervisor or some U. S. technician is not available for every surveyed participant.[1] And only those who knew a participant prior to his selection were asked about their role in that early phase, thus restricting still further the generality of these data. Their images of the process of selection cannot be fully compared with those of the participants, and must be drawn more tentatively. If not conclusive, however, they remain instructive.

The supervisors generally agreed with their subordinates about the first step in going for training: only 11 per cent of the participants were said to have applied on their own; "someone in their organization" actually initiated the program of two-thirds of the participants. Supervisors said they recommended four-fifths of the subordinates in question, and helped plan the programs of one-half of them. Thus they saw themselves as intimately involved in the preponderant majority of cases: the supervisors of only 18 per cent of participants avoided or were prevented from active involvement in the early stages of participant training.[2]

Supervisors were also asked to give their evaluations of six general aspects of training programs, to judge them as satisfactory or not. Of the six, the "procedures by which participants were selected" was rated as satisfactory by 53 per cent of the supervisors, which was next to the last in degree of satisfaction.[3] Dissatisfactions revolved around the issues of who should select (i.e., supervisors should do it more, or more by means of competitive examination), and by what criteria (i.e., work experience should count more.)

U. S. technicians also saw themselves as being very actively engaged in the early stages of the participants' training programs. They had worked previously with almost four in five, and gave some orientation to three-quarters of the participants. They helped to select, plan the programs, and coordinate training with the employer or host country of two-thirds of the participants.[1] But this set of findings is based on too few cases to warrant any extended analysis.

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[1] Definitions of the maximum potential number of participants for whom comparative data could be obtained can vary; for example, 20% of the participants denied that they had a supervisor, and 2% refused to have him interviewed. Depending upon the types of data and assumptions, interviews were obtained with supervisors for 60-80%, and with U. S. personnel for 30-40% of all participants who were themselves interviewed.

[2] This finding is based on data available for just under half of all interviewed participants.

[3] No differences in satisfactions or reasons for dissatisfactions with these six general aspects were found when the answers of supervisors who were themselves former participants were compared with those who were not. "Sour grapes" seem to be absent in their evaluations: see below, p. 145.

Sponsorship

Most participants were sponsored by a ministry of their government, whether or not it was their direct employer, or took any active part in their selection. Since usages and names vary among countries we cannot compare participants readily on this item. The general distribution seems to be closely parallel to the one for the categories of training fields in which their programs were classified, presumably because a certain type of training would have been referred to its cognate ministry for administrative coordination or control. We will touch on ministry sponsorship later, when taking up the issue of predeparture information-giving. For analytical purposes, however, field of training will be used as a primary dimension of classification.

Another form of sponsorship is the U. S. auspices under which trainees were sent: as regular ICA/AID participants, under university contracts, or financed independently. Ninety-two per cent came under regular sponsorship, while the training of 7 per cent was covered under university contracts. Over the years the only noteworthy feature is a growth in sponsorship under university auspices. Since 1955 especially, trainees in education and agriculture came increasingly through this channel. Prior to that data, almost all participants were regularly sponsored by the predecessor agencies of ICA. More recently, contracts have been the vehicle for even larger numbers and proportions of trainees; in FY 1964, for example, 10 per cent of all AID-sponsored participants were trained under contracts, five-eighths of whom were directly under university auspices, and most of the rest under the African American Institute (ASPAU).

Criteria of Selection

Administrative guidelines for selecting participants, while varying in details over the years, have been fairly stable since 1955, with the founding of ICA. They need not be related here, since the Office of International Training has commissioned an operational study in which they are set forth in great detail.[1] We will discuss the five criteria whose perceived importance was assessed directly in the survey.

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[1] These findings are based on a very small number of participants about whose programs technicians were interviewed. The character of the sample, and the short tenure of most technicians in any country makes this necessarily a small group, in this case less than 10% of all interviewed participants.

Each participant was asked:

> How important was each of these factors in deciding if you would go on the training program? Your personal ability? The needs of your job? Your personal contacts? Your language ability? Your professional and educational qualifications? [For each, an answer was recorded as "very important," "not very important," or "don't know."]

The relationships of these attributes to explicit and implicit assumptions or goals of participant training are obvious, as is the fact that answers to these questions often involve sensitive issues for a respondent, and cannot be taken wholly at face value. We will use the results as indicators of relative importance, and assess them in terms of the concomitants and circumstances that affect their expressed order of magnitude. Here is the way in which each was evaluated by the participants (Table 2.11).

TABLE 2.11.--PARTICIPANT'S BELIEFS ABOUT IMPORTANCE OF FIVE CRITERIA FOR THEIR SELECTION
(In Percentages)

Criteria	Degree of Importance			Total[a] Per Cent
	Very	Not Very	Don't Know, N.A.	
A. Professional and educational qualifications	88.5	8.2	3.2	99.9
B. Needs of the job	88.0	9.7	2.3	100.0
C. Personal ability	87.8	7.2	5.0	100.0
D. Language ability	64.4	32.0	3.6	100.0
E. Personal contacts	35.5	58.5	6.0	100.0

[a] Percentages in each row are based on all participants (N=19025).

Of the five factors, only personal contacts would seem, from an outsider's perspective, to be retrogressive or objectionable. Foreign language ability might be more or less important, depending upon the country in which training is given and the trainee's existing level of skill. The other three are generally pertinent and unexceptionable criteria, and it is not surprising that almost nine in ten believed them to have been very important in their selection. We will explore the correlates of three of these criteria in greater detail, reserving personal contacts till last.

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[1] Harley O. Preston, "Operations of the AID Participant Training Program." (A Conference Paper.) Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., June 1965.

Needs of the job.--All training is meant to be directly related to an existing or anticipated set of work tasks, yet one trainee in ten judged job needs as relatively unimportant. There are only slight hints in the data of influences that might be at work among this group. One has an impression of a youthful, somewhat more insulated group, thus with less firm convictions about the importance of the work criterion in their selection; the differences are, however, quite small.

Language ability.--There are three interrelated influences upon the extent to which language ability is deemed very important as a selection factor by participants. One is a set of personal attributes, mainly age and work experience. The older or more experienced (and these two are highly related) trainees cited it less often; this is true also of those with less formal education. These personal characteristics set limits upon the type of training which could be usefully devised, and both of the other influential factors are related to this point.

The single most powerful circumstance was whether a program required a knowledge of English,[1] and if it did, how confident or capable one felt about his mastery of the language (Table 2.12). Seventy per cent of participants who were sent on programs requiring English felt their language ability was very important, while among others by contrast only about half as many deemed it important. And, the more "confident" one felt about his skill with English the more often was his language ability likely to be cited as an important criterion for his selection. (This latter finding may have the status of a self-confirming judgment: "Since I am proficient in the language, it must have been important in my being chosen." All these judgments, it will be remembered, were retrospective.)

The third factor, related to the previous two, was the kind of program which was planned. Observation tours and special group tours made the least demands upon the language skills of their participants; in many cases they were led by interpreters. Those who went only on either type of program were, therefore, less likely to have judged language ability as important.

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[1] The role of English in training is analyzed in Chapter III.

TABLE 2.12.--PARTICIPANTS' VIEW OF IMPORTANCE OF LANGUAGE ABILITY AS A SELECTION FACTOR BY REQUIREMENTS OF PROGRAM AND AN INDEX OF PROFICIENCY
(In Percentages)

Requirements of Training Program and Index	Importance of Language Ability			Total Number (=100%)
	Very	Not Very	Don't Know, N.A.	
Program required knowledge of English	70	27	3	(15751)
Index of Proficiency[a]				
High	77	19	4	(6868)
Moderately high	72	26	1	(1301)
Moderately low	67	31	2	(2973)
Low	61	37	2	(4609)
Program did not require English language	37	56	7	(3274)
Total	64	32	4	(19025)

[a] Index consists of combination of answers to two questions: "Did you get some English language instruction in preparation for your program? Would some (more) have been helpful?" 'High' = no, no; 'Moderately high' = yes, no; 'Moderately low' = no, yes; 'Low' = yes, yes.

Personal contacts.--At first glance, a participant would seem unlikely to acknowledge that his personal contacts were important in his selection for training. To be chosen because of "who you know" represents a departure from an impartial and objective type of selection process, based upon achievement, ability and proven need. Few participants considered these approved criteria unimportant, but more than a third (36%) also judged "personal contacts" as very important.[1] How can we account for this (lesser but still sizable) magnitude of response, and what are its correlates? Are there any implications of personal contacts other than favoritism? May an admission of its importance be construed in more neutral terms?

One observation that can be made on this topic relates to the broader social and cultural setting within which personal relationships exist and are variously influential in achieving personal goals or acquiring some comparative career advantage. Societies and organizations vary in the extent to which the play of personal factors is minimized or controlled, permitting merit or other more objectively assessed qualities significantly to shape the processes by which social rewards are bestowed. And societies vary also in the extent to which personal sorts of criteria are seen as necessary or legitimate, and discussed without resentment or negative connotations. An equalitarian or openly competitive model of selection to participant training is of little value in realistically evaluating the process in societies where traditional or hereditary distinctions of status and power are decisive. In such cases, to say that "personal contacts were important" is less a commentary on the failings of a selection system than upon the prevailing norms of the society within which it must operate. "Personal contacts" can therefore have not the one familiar and more sinister implication of favoritism or "pull," but a variety of meanings intimately associated with the social settings within which selection for training is carried out.

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[1] Translated in the French version as "vos relations"; in the Spanish version as "sus contactos personales."

Following this line of thought, we would expect some variations in citing of personal contacts as important across countries or regions because of cultural and social or political differences, independent of other correlates. And they would be greater than, for example, variations in the mention of "job needs," a criterion which is more generally pertinent. The findings are unequivocal on this point: variations in citing personal contacts range from 12 to 74 per cent across countries, while for job needs the range is much narrower, between 84 and 100 per cent (Table 2.13).[1]

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[1] In some cases, a desire to please the interviewer or AID, or caution in giving what might be thought an unacceptable answer may also be reflected in these figures. This tendency, termed a "courtesy bias" has been noted in past cross-cultural research. From this perspective, the range of differences in mentioning personal contacts is all the more impressive as evidence for the existence of powerful cultural influences.

TABLE 2.13.--BELIEFS ABOUT THE IMPORTANCE OF "PERSONAL CONTACTS" AND "NEEDS OF JOB" AS SELECTION CRITERIA BY COUNTRY OF PARTICIPANTS

Country	Selection Criteria:[a] (Per Cent Saying: "Very Important")	
	Personal Contacts	Needs of Job
Morocco	74 %	92 %
Ecuador	68	91
British Guiana	62	94
British Honduras	62	99
Philippines	57	96
Ethiopia	56	84
Jordan	56	100
Brazil	55	85
Chile	54	84
Greece	53	85
Costa Rica	50	91
Egypt	45	97
Vietnam	43	92
Jamaica	42	97
Surinam	36	94
Turkey	33	87
Pakistan	26	92
Nicaragua	26	100
India	25	91
Israel	22	91
Korea	17	85
China (Taiwan)	14	90
Thailand	12	88
All Countries	37 %	90 %

[a] Base for percentages excludes N.A. and "don't know" responses; see Table 2.11 for full details.

A second point is that selection for participant training depends in large part upon personal knowledge of the candidates in their present or anticipated work setting; impersonal agencies or procedures, as we saw, were rarely believed by participants to have been significant in their selection. One's personal contacts can be the means of coming to the attention of selection agents, especially through past work on development projects with or for the U. S. Mission. Personal acquaintance arising from work relationships renders such people more "socially visible." And it is true that half of those who said a U. S. official had selected them gauged personal contacts as very important; those with any prior contacts with the Mission were also more likely to deem them important than those with none at all. Higher status participants generally had closer ties with USOM prior to their selection, or had some work contacts, as did those of lowest status, and both groups more often cited their personal contacts as significant in their selection (Table 2.14). (Our analysis of those who went for training more than once showed them to be chiefly distinguished from others by their closeness to the Mission; clearly, these people were more "visible" than others.) For the relatively few craftsmen and workers who have been selected for training these sorts of personal relationships probably were crucial, since there are, speaking comparatively, so many to choose from and so few who have been chosen from this occupational stratum.

TABLE 2.14.--BELIEFS ABOUT THE IMPORTANCE OF "PERSONAL CONTACTS" AND "NEEDS OF JOB" AS SELECTION CRITERIA BY OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF PARTICIPANTS AT SELECTION

Occupational Status at Selection	Two Selection Criteria:[a] (Per Cent Saying "Very Important")	
	Personal Contacts	Needs of Job
Top and secondary policy-makers, executives	47	90
Managers, administrative officials	38	89
Professions: scientists, engineers, teachers	31	89
Subprofessions, technicians	32	88
Foreman, craftsmen and workers	46	83
Total	36	89

[a] Excludes students and N.A. on occupational status; or N.A. on each of the two selection criteria.

There remains the more familiar, somewhat pejorative meaning of personal contacts. And one can identify a set of correlates of those who mentioned personal contacts which together give the impression of a relaxation of more stringent vocational assumptions underlying their selection. Participants who were older, especially over 55, selected by unions or trade associations, sent for programs in the field of labor, who went primarily for short observation tours or as members of a special group tour were more likely to view their personal contacts as having been significant. The nontechnical goals of training may have had more relevance in their selection.[1]

In the absence of other data which could pinpoint their significance more precisely in individual cases, it is not possible to do more than explore the role of personal contacts in this tentative and inferential fashion. From the evidence of their own words, it would appear that personal contacts are rarely the sole basis for selection; rather they can be decisive in bringing people more prominently into consideration, or in choosing among candidates who for the most part were also judged qualified on the grounds of need or ability. Additional data from other sources might provide an image of an even more politically oriented process; in their absence one can only note this as a possibility.

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[1] For more detailed information on such categories of participants, see below, pp. 255-258 and pp. 269-272.

III. PRELUDE TO TRAINING: PLANNING AND PREPARATION

Introduction

After selection, most participants are given some preparation for training through an orientation process. Final plans are made and administrative details settled in this predeparture phase, sometimes with the active involvement of the participants. Additional language instruction may be offered, although special tutoring or training of this character is more often a prerequisite of selection than a sequel to it. Orientation and information about the purposes, substance and place of training are given in order to facilitate the learning process and social or personal adjustment. A positive tone can be established during this phase in the thinking of selectees about the role that training and work tasks can play in national development; they can be encouraged to relate their efforts to some larger, new or less parochial context.

This period is also one in which firm commitments can be more readily elicited from host country officials with authority to carry them out, as to the future uses of trainees who come from their organizations. Since training is invariably a part of a more comprehensive assistance agreement, the amount of leverage available to the U. S. Mission is probably greatest then, for promoting organizational conditions conducive to the use of training by participants upon their return. The willingness by employers, and work supervisors in particular, to make good use of their subordinates' advanced training is a key institutional factor in the use to which such training will be put.

We can thus formulate two of the implicit goals of this preparatory phase of training as: strengthening the individual's motivation to gain the maximum from his training, and fostering the social conditions most favorable to the use of training at work. Given the great variety of social and political conditions under which participant training operates, these aims are difficult to achieve. But no type of advanced study or special training, however excellent in design or in actuality, will show significant results unless a participant's attitudes and needs and his potential work setting also receive some attention, as part of preparation for training.

In this chapter we discuss the preparatory phase of training; topics relating to the substance ("technical") of training as well as the social or administrative ("nontechnical") aspects of the program will be included. Our focus will be on all program facets (for which we have data) that occur after selection and prior to their arrival for training. Together, these facts and opinions constitute another set of "influences" on participants' uses and evaluations of training.

Preparations for Training

Planning the Programs

Participants were asked about the sources, substance and adequacy of the information they received about the plans for their programs, and their own role in determining what kind of training they were to get. Judging from their replies, they can more aptly be called "recipients" than "participants" at this stage of training. For, fewer than half (47%) heard anything about their training program at their place of employment (or school); the key informant for a majority (56%) of this group was their work supervisor, with a U. S. Mission official having given information to one in five of them at their work place. Then, only a third (34%) were supplied with any orientation by the ministry which acted as their formal sponsor. Two participants in five (39%) received no information from either source prior to their departure (Table 3.1). Among those who were least informed about plans for their approaching training were the young, inexperienced participants, those who were to be sent for two years or more as regular students at universities.

TABLE 3.1.--SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON TRAINING PROGRAM DURING ITS PLANNING

Received Information at/from: Work Place, School		Received Information at/from: Sponsoring Ministry			Per Cent of Participants[a]
Yes	&	Yes			21.4[b]
Yes	&	No			26.4
No	&	Yes			13.3
No	&	No			38.9
			Total	%	100.0
				(N)	(18467)

[a] Excludes N.A. on either source (N=558).

[b] Includes participants employed by sponsoring ministry.

As might be expected the chief topics of orientation about plans for training, regardless of source, were the substantive details of the program: what, where, how and by whom. Significantly, only one in five of those persons who were informed about training plans at all recalled any references to the posttraining job or work they would be called on to do. Most other references were quite general in nature, or dealt with isolated details of administration (Table 3.2). This picture of a meager and uneven flow of information, derived from responses to two questions about sources, will be altered and sharpened substantially by a review of answers to questions dealing with specific topics of advance information, to be presented shortly.

TABLE 3.2.--TYPES OF INFORMATION ABOUT TRAINING PROGRAM RECEIVED PRIOR TO DEPARTURE, BY TWO SEPARATE SOURCES IN THEIR OWN COUNTRY
(In Percentages)

Type of Information Received	Two Sources of Information[a]	
	Work Place	Sponsoring Ministry
Substance of training, e.g., subjects, location	72	71
Administrative details, e.g., money, transport	27	28
Training program in general	21	19
Participant's posttraining job	16	20
Cultural, social, economic or physical aspects of training country	8	6
Administrative role of own government	3	3
Other, nonspecific, N.A.	14	27
Total %	161	174
(N)	(9012)	(5018)

[a] Percentages are based on participants who said they got information about their training program at their work place, and from their sponsoring ministry independently; multiple responses were coded for each source.

Participant's Role in Planning Program

Only a minority of participants took an active part in the preparations for their training program. Three out of eight had an opportunity to take some part in planning, a third of whom (i.e., 12%) claimed that as a result their training was based mainly on their own ideas. The main factor which seems to have determined whether a participant was afforded such an opportunity was his seniority or high status: those who were older, more experienced or better educated, and especially those highest in occupational status more often helped plan their training. (In the latter instance, 43% of the top status group had some active role, while 28% of the lowest level group of trainees did so, with the professionals in between.) But even among those who took a hand in the planning process, about one in five felt they did not participate to the extent they wished. Among the majority (63%) who had no opportunity whatever to shape the content of their program, three-quarters said that their training would have been better had they done so. Thus over one half (55%) of the entire group expressed serious misgivings about the opportunity they had to help plan their own training program. Only 30 per cent were fully satisfied with their role in planning.

One of the more enduring and well documented generalizations in the social science research literature on people's reactions to a novel or changing social context is that a sense of participation in the making of decisions facilitates subsequent personal adjustment and leads to more effective performance.[1] Active participation can be a powerful motivational force, one which is hardly being exploited in the participant training program, judging by these findings. There are, of course, realistic limits to the role trainees can play in planning their programs. In an assistance program of this scope and variety a good deal of administrative coordination over long periods of time is required. Since an active role in planning their training has been denied to most participants, the quality and extent of the orientation they receive becomes all the more fateful in building or maintaining a positive attitude toward their program.

Advance Orientation and Information

As we have seen, many participants received only minimal orientation about plans for their training. They were asked to evaluate the adequacy of information given them prior to departing for training, by whatever source, concerning key aspects of their future program and country of training. Whenever they expressed dissatisfaction they were asked what, in retrospect, they would have found useful to know. The topics of these evaluative questions would be at the core of any type of orientation for participant training. And, from the replies that were elicited, one can identify some deficiencies: less often related to information which would prepare participants to *live in* the country of training than to their foreknowledge of the *substance of* their training programs.

Information about the program.--The participants were asked if they had gotten enough information about four specific (and one residual) aspects of their training program before they left home. (Although people's definitions of "enough" will vary according to personal needs, an affirmative answer may be taken as an indication of a roughly comparable level of individual satisfaction.) By this standard, some items of information were clearly more adequately communicated in advance of training than others (Table 3.3).

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[1] The classical reference for a large number of subsequent studies which have extended and specified this generalization is: L. Coch and J.R.P. French, "Overcoming Resistance to Change," *Human Relations*, Vol. I (1948) pp. 512-532.

TABLE 3.3.--SATISFACTION WITH PREDEPARTURE INFORMATION ON FIVE PROGRAM ASPECTS

Aspect of Program	"Got Enough Information"[a]
". . . The length of the program": Length	94%
". . . When they would be going": Timing	85%
". . . Where they would be going": Location	72%
". . . What they would be learning": Substance	61%
". . . Any other program aspects": Other	74%

[a] Percentages in each row are based on total sample (N=19025).

The length of the program was dealt with adequately in almost everyone's judgment. The exact timing of their departure for training was less often treated adequately: those who were dissatisfied mentioned that they were given no exact date, or they learned about it too late to make proper preparations. About a quarter of the participants were displeased with the details of information provided on the specific locations (schools, factories or organizations) on their itinerary. But the greatest weakness in orientation was in the area of substance of training. Almost two out of five participants rated their orientation on this crucial topic as inadequate, either because the information was not specific enough, or not enough of it was ever made available to them.

The sole common denominator among those who judged program orientation inadequate (on one or another of these grounds) was that their programs were either of very long (2 years and longer) or quite brief (2 months or less) duration. Perhaps these are the most difficult sorts of programs to handle thru advance planning and orientation. Shorter programs tend to be somewhat hastily scheduled, as opportunities and funds become available. And the final details of the longest ones often cannot be settled until the universities have had an opportunity to evaluate the students more carefully. But an information gap is clearly shown in these data.

We constructed an index of answers to the five items of program information cited above; by this summary measure of evaluation 43 per cent of the participants expressed satisfaction with all five, and an additional 23 per cent were displeased with only one of the five items. Thus two thirds had minor or no complaints, a somewhat brighter picture than was reflected in the data analyzed earlier, on sources of information. We can conclude that with respect to orientation given them about details of their program, more than one-third of all participants felt some serious deficit of information, reflecting a less than optimal process of orientation, and one which has consequences for their reception of the training experience.

Information about country of training.--Much of the rationale underlying an orientation relates to the problems of cross-cultural adjustment, or "culture shock," and especially to the social and cultural distance between living conditions in their own lands and the major training sites--for most of them in the United States. Participants were asked to rate the adequacy of information which was supposed to help them get along in the country of training. In general, these aspects of the orientation process were more favorably evaluated than those relating to the training program (Table 3.4).

TABLE 3.4.--SATISFACTION WITH PREDEPARTURE INFORMATION ON FIVE ASPECTS OF THE COUNTRY OF TRAINING

Aspect of Country	"Got Enough Information"[a]
". . . The use of their money"	87%
". . . Their manners and customs generally"	82%
". . . Use of restaurants, public facilities"	80%
". . . Their religious practices"	79%
". . . Colloquial speech, idioms"	73%

[a] Percentages in each row are based on total sample (N=19025).

Four out of five (or more) rated four of the topics as having been adequately covered. Only with respect to "colloquial speech and idioms" did as many as a quarter of the participants express dissatisfaction with their orientation, and this was intertwined with the problem of using a foreign (English) language during training and in daily life. Again, using a summary index, we observed that over one half (57%) were satisfied with their orientation in all five respects, and another 17 per cent found only one of the five wanting.

When these data are related to the sites where training was received, a few variations can be seen: trainees sent to Japan or to Mainland United States expressed somewhat greater satisfaction, whereas those who went to China (Taiwan) or the Philippines were less satisfied with their cultural orientation than the remainder of the group. (Lebanon and Puerto Rico were other sites for which trainees seemed less than optimally prepared; but these departures from the norm are rather slight.) Another influence upon ratings is the age and background of the trainees: those who are older, better educated and more sophisticated selectees, having obtained more information on their own, may be less dependent on formal orientation of this type.

Advance Commitments to Use Training

Program planning and orientation are complex and time-consuming administrative procedures, but their value to a successful outcome of training makes them a subject of obvious importance. No less crucial is the concurrent set of commitments elicited from the governments or employing organizations of the participants. Assistance in the form of advanced training needs to be integrated into a development project or scheme for which it is deemed vital, if maximum use is to be made of it. If the successful utilization of participant training depends upon a host of unforeseeable contingencies, a firm advance commitment to place the trainees appropriately, according to some plan, is one clearly specifiable prerequisite. Where such a commitment does not exist, training is more likely to prove to be a pleasant but irrelevant interlude, and a luxury which neither the participant nor his government can easily afford.

In assessing the degree to which plans for use of participants were in existence prior to their departure, we can turn to the interviews held with their supervisors, the people most likely to have some knowledge of an advance organizational commitment. We have data bearing on this point for more than half (58%) of the participants in our survey. According to their testimony, the employing organizations of seven out of eight trainees "had plans as to how his training would be utilized after he came back." And the one element most closely associated with the existence of such a plan or commitment was the supervisor's own involvement in his subordinate's program of training (Table 3.5).

TABLE 3.5.--ORGANIZATIONAL PLANS FOR THE USE OF PARTICIPANT'S TRAINING, BY SUPERVISOR'S PRIOR INVOLVEMENT IN HIS PROGRAM
(DATA FROM SUPERVISORS)
(In Percentages)

Existence of Prior Organizational Plan	Degree of Supervisor's Involvement[b]			Total
	Recommended and Helped Plan Program	Did Either Activity	Did Neither Activity	
Plan for use existed	97.1	85.4	65.2	87.4
No plan existed	2.4	12.3	33.6	9.4
Don't know	.5	2.3	12.2	3.2
Total[a] %	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(N)	(1263)	(921)	(474)	(2658)

[a] This table is based initially on the unweighted number of participants whose supervisors were interviewed (N=5600). (While the answers came from the supervisors, the objects of their replies were specific participants.) Excludes participants whose supervisors did not know them prior to training (N=2912) and N.A. on either item (N=30).

[b] Based on answers by supervisors to two questions about each participant: "Did you recommend that [participant] be sent on a training program?" "Did you help in planning [participant's] training program?"

Once again, the crucial role of a trainee's work supervisor in the conduct of his program is demonstrated. Where a supervisor was, by his own admission, minimally involved, neither recommending nor helping in the planning of his subordinate's training, a prior organizational plan was significantly less likely to have existed; where his role was most active, prior plans for use of subordinate's training were made in almost all cases. This variation is particularly striking since it could be expected that supervisors would say plans existed, regardless of their own role, simply as a matter of bureaucratic conformity.

Whether or not a participant was to return to a "prepared" occupational milieu (where his training would have a definite functional role in future operations) was unrelated to the characteristics of participants or to the type of training. It was also unrelated to their own views on whether training proved to be valuable to their careers. Its sole important association is with the extent to which training was used, and is therefore a good illustration of how the utilization of participant training can be independently affected by early attention to the postprogram work environment, irrespective of the character of trainees or programs. And the most significant actor in determining the nature of the occupational setting is the immediate work supervisor. The more active (or broader in scope) his intervention in the conduct of the program the more likely was a participant to find his training linked to an organizational commitment to use it as part of a development project, upon his return.

Prior Work Contacts With USOM

We saw earlier how participants evaluated the multiple sources of information and orientation as part of their preparations for training. They did not mention the Mission very often as a prime source of information, nor did many believe that it played a crucial role in their selection for training. But their prior association with the Mission, as employees or on a development project may have provided an indirect means of learning what was in store for them or expected of them. They were asked:

> At the time you were selected to go abroad, were you employed by USOM or in a project run jointly by USOM and your government?
> [If Yes] Full-time, part-time or occasionally?
> [If No] Before you were selected, had your work ever brought you into contact with any USOM project?

Three out of five had never had any previous contacts with U. S. Mission development work, when they were selected for training. Just over a fifth (21%) of the participants were working (most of them full-time) for or with USOM on a development project when selected. The rest had some prior contact but were not associated with Mission-sponsored activities when selected (Table 3.6).

In our earlier analysis of the role of personal contacts in the selection process we used this variable to show how people in close association with USOM might thereby be rendered socially visible as candidates for training. Now we seek to show its potential impact on the orientation process. From this perspective its value is small. People working for or with USOM were only slightly more likely to have been satisfied with their orientation concerning the major details of their program, or with information designed to help them get along in their country of training than trainees with no prior contacts at all. Concerning orientation about their program, 47 per cent of the former (vs. 40% of the latter group) judged all five items as having been covered adequately. The differences were even smaller in opinions of orientation relating to the country of training: 59 per cent of the former (vs. 56% of the latter group) thought all five topics had been treated satisfactorily.

TABLE 3.6.--PRIOR WORK CONTACTS
WITH THE U. S. MISSION

Prior Contacts With USOM		Per Cent
Working for/with USOM at selection		21
Full-time	17	
Part-time	4	
Some prior work contacts		18
No prior contacts at all		60
Total %		100
(N)		(19025)

A Note on Technicians' Views

These data cannot be taken as adequate indicators of the true extent of Mission involvement in the selection and preparation phases of participant training. Much of the actual work in this period is hidden from the view of participants, and if we attend to sources other than the participants another picture emerges. For example, knowledgeable U. S. technicians were interviewed about their role in the preparation of these participants' programs. Only very few (8%) were known to them at that earlier point; with respect to those trainees' programs the technicians asserted that:

--They had prior work contacts with 79%;
--They gave predeparture information to 75%;
--They helped plan the programs of 68%;
--They helped select 65%;
--They coordinated the programs with employers of 64%.

There is little agreement then between participants and U. S. technicians, as to the scope or extent of involvement of Mission personnel. This is not too surprising: the questions were dissimilar in form, and are only roughly analogous in content. The answers by the two groups almost inevitably would reflect the different vantage points of each in observing program processes. Further, the technicians were under an additional constraint; they would not want to admit to little responsibility and activity with respect to these vital aspects of the program. But if we accept the data obtained from the participants as valid indicators of their personal knowledge, rather than of an objective reality, what sort of picture is produced? In general, the image is one of Mission inactivity or lassitude, of a distance from or relative neglect of the individual selectee, and thus of only faint traces of any U. S. impression which was made upon them at this early stage. And this picture holds true across all categories and types of participants, with the sole exception of those holding the highest occupational statuses; presumably their national importance was instrumental in the somewhat greater attention paid them during the predeparture period. In sharp contrast, those lowest in occupational status and the youngest, least experienced selectees seemed to be at the periphery of Mission attention even more frequently than others. In all likelihood, they were the ones most in need of closer attention and greater care in preparing them for the training experience.

Facility With the English Language

The "language problem" is usually invoked in discussions of cross-cultural programs of education or exchange, and it is no less pertinent for participant training. Special difficulties can and do arise for trainees whose programs require them to use and comprehend English, both in training and in daily life in the U. S. These problems can be anticipated and resolved in several ways, all of which have been employed or are currently used by AID. First, and ideally, one can select only those candidates who demonstrate, by tests or otherwise, that they have a mastery of English adequate to the demands of the sojourn. Or, one could provide special training for those whose English is functionally inadequate. Or, training can be given elsewhere, perhaps a "third country" with a more familiar linguistic and cultural context.

These are, of course, interrelated options or contingencies; for certain kinds of training such as in atomic energy, available only (or mainly) in the U. S. one's prior language skill must become a more rigid qualification for selection. In other cases, however, greater flexibility is possible: interpreters can accompany a group or an individual, part of the training can be supplied at third country sites, and so on. Short trips to the U. S. for cultural and political "exposure" could be tacked onto lengthier technical training given elsewhere. Thus, language facility is an important but not absolute criterion for selection and successful training, and in the presence of other compelling reasons some slippage in its rigorous use is inevitable.

English Language Tests

Since 1956, attempts have been made to introduce systematic testing of potential participants for their facility with English. The American University Language Center (AULC) developed a set of tests of oral and written command of the language. These instruments were revised in 1961 by the American Language Institute of Georgetown University (ALIGU) and standards for selection were established, based on attainment of adequately high scores on them. Only a small proportion (about 12%) of our surveyed participants had taken these tests; no test scores at all were available from eight countries: India, Pakistan, British Guiana, British Honduras, Jamaica, Philippines, Israel and Surinam. In these instances, testing may have been waived because of the widespread use of English among the educated population, or because of the teaching of English as a second (or third) language in the higher school systems. In other countries, many of the participants had been selected for training prior to the introduction or general use of the tests; also a large number did not require any English language facility for their training programs. Because little is known in any systematic way about the past use of these tests in AID, we will review the data available to us from the survey, especially the relationship between test scores and later difficulties with English in training.

The scores recorded in the Mission files on participants were actually based on several versions and revisions of both oral and written tests. We can only compare the distributions of these scores, with caution therefore; they seem to be quite similar (Table 3.7). Since the minimum required score was set at 50 initially, and then raised to 65 (80 for university-goers) it would seem that few who were manifestly underqualified were selected and sent for training. But inferences based on so few cases are risky; some unqualified people may have managed to avoid taking the

TABLE 3.7.--SCORES ON ORAL AND WRITTEN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TESTS (AULC/ALIGU): PARTICIPANTS FROM 15 COUNTRIES (In Percentages)

ORAL English Tests	Test Score Categories	WRITTEN English Tests
- %	01-09	2 %
1	10-19	1
1	20-29	3
2	30-39	3
3	40-49	5
12	50-59	10
23	60-69	18
30	70-79	25
20	80-89	25
8	90-99	8
100	Total %	100
(1200)	(N)[a]	(1220)
70	Mean Score	68
72	Median Score	73
74	Mode Score	74

[a]Based on unweighted number of participants.

tests. A special study of the language facility of selected and rejected candidates for training would be needed to draw firm conclusions about the use or abuse of tests in selection. As a sidelight, we computed correlations between oral and written test scores, country by country and also for all individuals, using the product-moment correlation coefficient (r_{xy}) as the measure. The results show substantial inter-country variations, with coefficients ranging from .14 to .87. But the over-all correlation value of .54 indicates that the same individuals often obtained very different scores on the two kinds of tests. Some of this variance can be attributed to measurement error arising from the use of various versions of both tests. On balance, however, the correlational analysis indicates that the tests are measuring two interdependent but distinct linguistic skills, and cannot be used interchangeably in assessing English language facility (Table 3.8).

TABLE 3.8.--CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ORAL AND WRITTEN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEST SCORES OF PARTICIPANTS FROM 15 COUNTRIES

Country	Correlation Coefficient (r_{xy})	Participants[a]	
		(N) With Both Scores[b]	Total (N) Interviewed
Nicaragua	.87	22	182
Korea	.74	271	524
Ethiopia	.73	12	197
Costa Rica	.69	108	388
Brazil	.67	52	538
Ecuador	.64	25	390
Jordan	.61	34	254
Vietnam	.55	85	402
Chile	.53	13	427
China (Taiwan)	.41	151	619
Turkey	.35	168	1207
Thailand	.27	53	512
Greece	.26	127	372
Morocco	.25	16	147
Egypt	.14	40	217
Total	.54	1177	6376

[a] Based on unweighted number of participants.

[b] Only participants with both scores could be included in the correlational analysis.

Test scores ought to be helpful in "predicting" future difficulties with English during training. They were designed to be valid measures of achieved skills, and skill levels ought to be associated with the amount of difficulty in using English which a trainee encounters. His scores ought, therefore, to be strongly correlated with the reported prevalence of such linguistic problems. Participants whose programs required English were asked, "If you had any difficulty at all with your English during training, what was it? [None; being understood; understanding others; both?]"

Fifty six per cent of the participants claimed they had no difficulty, while the rest were about equally distributed among the other categories: 13 per cent had difficulty in being understood, 14 per cent in understanding others, and 17 per cent had both kinds of difficulty. And, as expected, the relationship between scores on either test (oral or written) and the prevalence of difficulty was strong and positive: the higher the score the more likely was it that "no difficulty at all" was reported (Table 3.9). This set of findings gains in value, even though based on relatively few cases,[1] because of the clear time ordering of the variables. The test scores were made in advance of training and recorded in the Mission files. The participants' judgments about any linguistic difficulties they'd had were gathered in interviews conducted several years after training was over. Their retrospective judgments cannot have been confounded or affected by their concurrent knowledge of the test results they had achieved. Thus, scores are predictive of later events (or at least expressed judgments about them) assessed subsequently and independent of the test results. These data lend strong support to the validity of the testing approach, and can be used to make an even stronger argument for taking their results seriously in making selections, if one wishes to forestall later difficulties.

TABLE 3.9.--LANGUAGE DIFFICULTY DURING TRAINING BY SCORES ON ORAL AND WRITTEN TESTS (AULC/ALIGU)

Test Score	Per Cent "Had No Difficulty"[a]	
	Oral Test	Written Test
90-99	73 (99)	60 (96)
80-89	54 (239)	44 (305)
70-79	37 (357)	40 (308)
60-69	27 (270)	31 (221)
50-59	14 (144)	24 (123)
. . .		
01-49	18 (91)	20 (167)

[a] Percentages in each cell based on unweighted number of participants with test scores whose program required English. (The same people are being classified twice in this table, since almost all took both tests. Numbers in each cell are in parenthesis.)

Language Instruction and Proficiency

Many aspects of the language problem are confronted daily in participant training in the selection and preparation of its trainees. A preponderant majority (83%) of these participants went on training programs that required a knowledge of the English language. This was, of course, true for practically all who came to the U. S. mainland for training (some were members of special groups, however, accompanied by interpreters). English was also used in training at some "third country" sites, for example, in the Philippines, Lebanon, or Hawaii and Puerto Rico (the latter two are classified here as third country sites). In recognition of the crucial role an adequate command of language plays in the realization of a program's full potential, language instruction or tutoring has been made available fairly widely. Prospective participants who need such training often begin their English studies many months prior to their actual selection or departure, and some take instruction in hopes of improving their chances of ultimately being chosen, when participant training needs and opportunities crystallize.

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[1] In all, only about one-quarter of all surveyed participants who left for training after 1957 had test scores recorded for them.

All whose training required some fluency in English were asked a set of linked questions on the state of their language skills.

> Did you receive any English language instruction in preparation for your program?
> [If Yes] Would more . . . have been helpful on your program?
> [If No] Would some . . . have been helpful to you on your program?

Thirty seven per cent had taken some formal preparatory training, over three-quarters (78%) of whom indicated that they wished for still more. By contrast, only 30 per cent of those who'd had none would have found such instruction helpful. Both the giving of language training and one's view that some (or more) instruction would have been helpful are, of course, linked to the facility with English which participants already had. Many came from English-speaking countries, or nations where it is widely taught and used as a second language (especially among the better educated in the society).

One need not be surprised, therefore, by the seeming paradox that more who had taken special instruction in English experienced language problems during training than participants who had had no such instruction prior to their departure (Table 3.10). Special training was, presumably, offered mainly to those who were deficient in such skills and thus were more or less in need of it. But such instruction usually can provide only minor gains, compared with a fluency developed by longer study or use.

TABLE 3.10.--DIFFICULTY WITH ENGLISH DURING TRAINING BY SPECIAL INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH AS PREPARATION FOR TRAINING
(In Percentages)

Difficulty With English During Training Program		Special English Language Instruction Before Training		Total
		Yes	No	
Had no difficulty		30	71	56
Had some difficulty[a]		70	29	44
Total[b]	%	100	100	100
	(N)	(5910)	(9840)	(15750)

[a]Difficulty in understanding others, being understood, or both.

[b]Excludes trainees whose programs did not require knowledge of English and those who were N.A. (N=3275).

As another tool for exploring the language problem we constructed an analytical index based on the participants' answers to the two questions quoted above. This "index of proficiency" may be viewed as incorporating both a personal and a social definition of language ability. One who agreed that some (or more) instruction in English would have helped him was, in all likelihood, less confident in his English skills than a participant who felt none (or no more) was needed; this was a personal judgment. The social definition of each participant's skill level arises from the aforementioned fact that instruction was offered to those identified (by the Mission) as clearly in need of it. Here is how the participants were classified by this index (Table 3.11). Proficiency in English, as denoted by this index, is more a function of a participant's earlier language learning than of any skills developed through special instruction before going on his program. The largest single group consisted of those who neither took (or were offered) such ad hoc instruction nor judged it helpful if they had.

TABLE 3.11.--INDEX OF PROFICIENCY WITH THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

	Per Cent[a]
High (received no training; wanted none)	44
Moderately High (received training; wanted no more)	8
Moderately Low (received no training; wanted some)	19
Low (received training; wanted more)	29
Total %	100
(N)	(15750)

[a] Excludes those whose programs didn't require English and those who were N.A. (N=3275).

Logically, a strong relationship should exist between a participant's level of proficiency, as measured by this index, and his report of any difficulty with English during his training period. The latter item served as the criterion for our earlier assessment of the predictive value of the various systematic tests taken by some participants. Such a finding would help to dissolve the paradox noted earlier in this section, by showing that the key to the absence of language problems during one's sojourn is prior learning, not special training. This line of reasoning is strongly supported by the empirical relationship between the proficiency index and the prevalence of language problems (Table 3.12). Eight out of nine rated as "high" in proficiency said they had no difficulty, while only two out of nine classified as "low" reported the absence of problems associated with the English language during their sojourn. This finding also confirms the conventional wisdom of the assertion that the language problem is best avoided by selecting people who have already acquired a good command of English; briefer courses of instruction, even if intensive, are of marginal use as a way of overcoming past shortcomings or preventing future difficulties.

The scarcity of otherwise qualified candidates, or various programming imperatives may require one to flout the conventional wisdom; therefore, the problems associated with the linguistic inadequacy of foreign nationals who come for training may be expected to persist, refractory to short run solutions. Two longer term approaches can be proposed, both of which involve an increased investment of development funds in the host countries. First, one could opt for training more people in their own languages--in their own countries, or in regional centers. This means spending money to build up or expand indigenous educational facilities, without a direct expectation of occupational or vocational gain. And, one could encourage a wider spread of the teaching of English as a second (or third) language in the school systems of the underdeveloped nations. This latter strategy might well have the most thorough-going consequences of any mode of assistance. Its effects on economic development and social or political change are, however, likely to be as profound as they are unpredictable.

TABLE 3.12.--DIFFICULTY WITH ENGLISH DURING TRAINING BY (AN INDEX OF) ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY
(In Percentages)

Difficulty With English During Training Program		Index of Proficiency[a]				Total[b]
		High	Mod. High	Mod. Low	Low	
Had no difficulty		89	55	31	23	56
Had some difficulty		11	45	69	77	44
Total	%	100	100	100	100	100
	(N)	(6867)	(1301)	(2973)	(4609)	(15750)

[a] See preceding table for derivation of the index.

[b] Excludes those whose programs didn't require English, and those who were N.A. (N=3275).

Satisfaction With Training Prior to Departure

As noted earlier, proper advance planning and orientation can do more than serve the informational needs of participants. It can shape their initial perspective on training. Good preparation should produce a more favorable attitude, one of greater satisfaction with the approaching program, or more confidence in confronting its challenges. In an attempt to measure trainees' predeparture attitudes, the participants were asked:

> Before you left to go abroad, how satisfied were you with your training program? Were you well satisfied, not very well satisfied, or didn't you know enough about it [to form a judgment]?

The time period to which the question has reference creates ambiguity in interpreting their replies, as does the wording of the response categories.[1] For example, those categorized as answering in the "indeterminate" vein represented by the third alternative may have been giving vent indirectly to a dissatisfied mood. But the category also includes a group who couldn't remember how satisfied they felt at the time. For these reasons, we cannot accept the pattern of replies as a faithful reflection of the actual level of satisfaction with which these participants anticipated their program of training. But we can use the proportion who were "well satisfied" as a conservative standard or criterion measure for assessing the relative efficacy of their preparations for training in shaping a positive attitude toward it; those who gave any other answer can be assumed to be less satisfied than they, although precisely how much cannot be specified.

Here, first, are their responses to the question, grouped by the year in which the participants departed for training (Table 3.13). These data show that those sent for training most recently are the least likely to have given an "indeterminate" answer. Since they are also the least likely to have forgotten how they felt,[2] their responses are more likely to reflect covert dissatisfaction instead. Over-all, 55 per cent were "well satisfied" before going aborad, a figure which is in rough correspondence with the proportions satisfied with their role in planning their programs, or with the full range of information supplied them prior to departure.

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[1] One can expect retrospective questions about a mood or attitude which existed some years earlier to yield answers or judgments that are influenced by the passage of time; memories fade, or are otherwise inaccurately recollected. Answers may also be subtly affected by one's current evaluation of the experience or its consequences, which can color recollections about earlier phases of their programs. As a result, questions which require respondents to assess earlier-held opinions or attitudes cannot be treated analytically in the same manner as questions which tap more current sentiments.

[2] They were interviewed within two years of their departure date, and in some cases within one year.

TABLE 3.13.--SATISFACTION WITH PROGRAM PRIOR TO DEPARTURE BY YEAR OF DEPARTURE
(In Percentages)

Predeparture Satisfaction With Training Program		Year of Departure					Total
		Before 1950	1950-1952	1953-1955	1956-1958	1959-1961	
Well satisfied		49	51	54	56	56	55
Not well satisfied		5	12	12	15	16	14
Didn't know enough (to judge); don't remember		46	37	34	29	28	31
Total[a]	%	100	100	100	100	100	100
	(N)	(268)	(1393)	(4954)	(8431)	(3885)[b]	(18931)

[a] Excludes N.A. on either (N=94).

[b] All but 8% had left prior to the beginning of Fiscal Year 1961.

What kinds of circumstances affected the satisfaction with which training tended to be viewed? Clearly, the most significant class of determinants was, as expected, the volume of information which participants got from a variety of sources. On every comparison which was made, using the variables which we have discussed earlier in this chapter, those who received (more) information, or who adjudged (more) aspects of their program or training country adequately covered during orientation were consistently more likely to have been "well satisfied" with their program before going abroad than those less well informed (Table 3.14)

These findings tend to support the view expressed earlier that sheer information-giving, the fulfillment of trainees' cognitive needs by supplying them with a "detailed map" of their upcoming program, can influence the mental set or mood with which they enter training. Conversely, of course, any serious shortcomings or failures in preparing them for training, will have potentially damaging consequences for learning and adjustment at later stages of training. (Some data on repercussions of the quality of preparations they received will be reviewed in later chapters.)

TABLE 3.14.--PROPORTION "WELL SATISFIED" PRIOR TO DEPARTURE BY FOUR ITEMS RELATING TO INFORMATION

Item About Information[a]		"Well Satisfied" (Per Cent)	Total (N)
1. Received information from/at place of employment:	Yes	64	(8985)
	No	47	(9762)
2. Received 'adequate information on:			
a. Substance of program:	Yes	67	(11617)
	No	35	(7246)
b. Location of training:	Yes	60	(13671)
	No	40	(5208)
c. Speech, idioms of country:	Yes	57	(13812)
	No	50	(5054)
3. Adequacy of information on Five Program Details (Index)			
	All five rated adequate	72	(8050)
	Any four rated adequate	52	(4441)
	Three or less rated adequate	35	(6421)
4. Adequacy of information on Five Aspects of Country of Training (Index)			
	All five rated adequate	59	(10858)
	Any four rated adequate	52	(3184)
	Three or less rated adequate	48	(4853)
	Total	55	(18931)

[a] N.A.'s are omitted from each (row) base for percentaging, and from each of the four items relating to information received prior to departure.

Participants' judgments of their attitude prior to training were related to two attributes of their planned programs: how complete or settled were its details, and how long it lasted. These are correlative matters: the shortest programs were more often fully set up in advance of departure, while the longest programs were least likely to have been determined in full and final fashion. Programs which were shorter, or fully arranged were more often anticipated with satisfaction by participants than were those which were longer, or whose elements had not been settled at all, before a trainee departed (Table 3.15).

TABLE 3.15.--PROPORTION "WELL SATISFIED" WITH THEIR PROGRAM PRIOR TO DEPARTURE BY HOW FULLY ARRANGED IT WAS, AND ITS DURATION

Character of Program as Planned[a]	"Well Satisfied" (Per Cent)	Total (N)
Program Arrangements		
Arranged in complete detail	60	(10736)
Arranged in partial detail	51	(6382)
Not set up at all	40	(1602)
Duration of Training		
Less than two months	61	(1493)
Two up to six months	55	(4773)
Six months up to one year	55	(6006)
One up to three years	53	(6331)
Three years and over	48	(175)
Total	55	(18931)

[a] Those who were N.A. on any of these items are omitted from each (row) base for percentaging.

No categories of participants and no other aspects of their programs showed any differences on this measure of felt satisfaction prior to training. Nor are judgments about the relative importance of various selection criteria associated with significant differences in their predeparture satisfaction. Those who thought personal contacts were important, for example, did not differ in this regard from those who deemed them unimportant. Thus, the hard standards by which a participant's preparation for training can be assessed, the scope and quality of his orientation, and the quality of his program plans, seem to be crucial ones in creating a positive image of his approaching training.

IV. THE TRAINING PERIOD: MAJOR PROGRAM DIMENSIONS AND EVALUATIONS

Introduction

The training careers of the participants have been traced to the point of their departure; now we turn to an analysis of the "anatomy" of training, derived from participants' descriptions and evaluations of the programs they actually received. For the purposes of the survey the training stay was broken up into its elements, the main dimensions along which programs may vary. This approach tends to fragment what was in actuality a unitary experience, when seen from a participant's own vantage point. Some sense of a program's integral quality may be communicated by this capsule statement of its dimensions and features, as well as its objectives.

> At some earlier point in time, a participant was sent to a training site in a country, where he spent a certain period of time studying or working in a field of training, typically one which was of direct occupational relevance for him. The means for accomplishing this was a program which incorporated one or more principal types of training. Threaded through and around the substantive aspects of training was a diverse assortment of other activities, which not only enabled a trainee to pass the time more agreeably, but may also have given the experience a deeper personal significance, and promoted greater international understanding.

The concrete details of each participant's program which filled in this bare outline cannot of course be fully explored here; many were idiosyncratic to the circumstances and opportunities that arose during their stay. Only the more generally comparable aspects of their otherwise quite diverse programs (such as those underlined above) can be treated in this analysis. Inevitably, at such a level much interesting data are lost to view; the separate reports on the evaluation survey in each country, however, capture the flavor of the concrete events of their trainees' programs. Participants' evaluations of the main aspects of their training sojourn were, of course, influenced by their reactions to the program experience as a whole, including the events which both preceded and followed their stay abroad. In a later chapter we will attempt to restore greater unity to the elements being analyzed separately here, by tracing the links between trainees' specific judgments about training and their more general evaluations.

First Steps on Arrival

Upon arriving in the country where all or most of his training was to take place a participant often had another chance to become more fully informed about participant training in general, and the substance of his own programs. Additional cultural preparation could also be supplied, relating to practical problems and life situations already being encountered. Judging from the data on predeparture orientation presented earlier, this may have been the first real occasion for some to learn about these matters. During this initial period participants may have an opportunity to request changes in the programs arranged for them, or take an active role in completing the arrangements if some details of their training were still unsettled.

Orientation Sessions

Once in the training country two-thirds (68%) of the participants attended a formal program of orientation which lasted longer than one day. The proportion who went to such sessions varied sharply by country of training: three-quarters of all U. S.-trained participants attended, vs. one-fifth to one-half of those trained at "third country" sites. (The low proportion was among those sent to offshore U. S. sites; the high was among those sent to the Philippines.) During the years covered by the survey, FY 1952 was a turning point in providing people with formal orientation upon their arrival. Before then, half or fewer attended, but in each succeeding year two-thirds or more of the trainees were sent through orientation programs (Table 4.1).

The institution figuring most prominently as a site for orientation sessions is the Washington International Center (WIC).[1] Half of all trainees, and 60 per cent of U. S.-trained participants attended formal sessions there, prior to training. The Center publishes a quarterly newsletter which is sent to former participants. At the time they were surveyed, 61 per cent of these former WIC participants were still getting the newsletter, as were 29 per cent of others trained in the U. S. Thus, more than one-third of all participants were still being reached by this publication, in some cases almost a decade afterward. (Its success in staying in touch with former participants by mail suggests the possibility of using the WIC newsletter or kindred publications as a channel for continuing communication or research relating to participant training, after trainees have returned home.)

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[1] It was founded in March 1950, at the request of the U. S. Government, by the American Council on Education. In July 1961 the responsibility for its operations was assumed by the Meridian House Foundation. Among the earliest recipients of orientation programs were German and Japanese visitors, who were sent to the U. S. by the occupation authorities; since 1950, more than 50,000 visitors have participated in its orientation programs.

TABLE 4.1.--ATTENDANCE AT FORMAL ORIENTATION SESSIONS IN TRAINING COUNTRY BY YEAR OF DEPARTURE
(In Percentages)

		Year of Departure				Total
		Up to 1950	1951-1954	1955-1958	1959-1961	
Attended at:						
Washington International Center (WIC)		10	51	52	45	50
Other location in U. S.[a]		24	15	13	15	14
Location outside U. S.		-	1	5	7	4
Did not attend, don't know[b]		66	33	30	33	32
Total[c]	%	100	100	100	100	100
	(N)	(410)	(3878)	(10793)	(3879)	(18960)

[a] Includes Univ. of Puerto Rico, American University (Washington), St. John's College (Maryland), other universities, government agencies and private establishments. None of these alone accounted for more than 3%.

[b] "Don't Know" answers are less than 1% in each year of departure category.

[c] Excludes N.A. on either item (N=65).

Those who attended orientation sessions were very strong in their praise: only one in nine would have preferred to spend that time on the rest of their program; the rest thought their sessions were valuable, no matter what location they attended. When asked for suggestions to make orientation more useful to their compatriots, one half would not offer any; the suggestions made by the other half were widely scattered in nature (Table 4.2).

TABLE 4.2.--PARTICIPANTS' SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING ORIENTATION SESSIONS
(In Percentages)

Improvements Suggested		Per Cent[a]
NO IMPROVEMENTS NEEDED, ORIENTATION WAS GOOD		50.0
SOME IMPROVEMENTS SUGGESTED		45.2
Orientation Should be Longer, More Extensive		
More information about United States	12.7%	
The entire orientation should be longer	11.2	
Should include meeting Americans, visiting families	6.5	
More social activities	5.7	
More information about my training program	5.6	
More lecturing	2.1	
More formal or methodical	1.8	
Organize Orientation Differently		
More homogeneous groupings and orientation more adapted to their precise nature	15.9	
Conducted in home country before leaving	7.0	
Closer contact with officials or advisors on arrival	6.0	
Conducted by someone from my country	3.7	
Orientation Should be Shorter, Less Extensive		
The entire orientation should be shorter	11.4	
Less lecturing	5.2	
Too fast a pace, too exhausting	3.7	
Less information about training country	3.2	
Less formal, methodical	2.9	
Other Nonspecific Improvements Suggested	32.3	
	136.9%[b]	
DON'T KNOW, NOT ASCERTAINED		4.8
Total %		100.0
(N)		(12283)

[a] Percentages are based on respondents who attended orientation sessions in the United States lasting longer than one day.

[b] Percentages are based on the 5,560 respondents who suggested improvements. They add to more than 100% because of multiple answers.

Program Arrangements and Changes

The actual details of the participants' programs varied considerably in their finality even at the time of arrival. As they recalled it, 57 per cent found their program arranged in complete detail, 34 per cent said it was only partially arranged, and 9 per cent said it was not set up at all. A series of factors were correlated with the completeness of programs. Among those less completely settled ones were programs in the fields of labor and public administration. Then, age and work experience were both related to programming closure: the younger and the less experienced trainees also confronted fully arranged programs more often than older trainees, or those with greater seniority in their work specialties. But the most dramatic differences were found among those sent to various "third country" sites. About a fifth of the programs taken in Puerto Rico or in Japan were not set up at all, in advance of their arrival. With these exceptions, the programs at other "third country" sites, especially in the Philippines, were more likely to have been fully arranged than were those held in the U. S.: 71 per cent of the former vs. 55 per cent of the latter programs were completely arranged when participants arrived. Finally, the longer the program, the less often was it completely arranged (with the single exception of those lasting 3 years or longer). For example, four out of five (82%) programs of under two months' duration were found to be complete upon arrival, vs. one-half (51%) of those lasting six months or longer. Consonant with the last two findings, the trend over the years has been toward more completely arranged programs (Table 4.3); as will be shown, training programs have tended to be getting shorter on the average, and situated in the U. S. less often.

One wonders whether the picture of administrative lags and shortcomings in completing trainees' program arrangements prior to sending them abroad, as represented by these findings, is wholly accurate. Their recollections may have been relative judgments, subtly affected by earlier-formed expectations, which were based in turn upon information they had been given, and on subjective needs or desires. One man's encounter with a full set of arrangements for training may have been another man's vision of utter chaos, depending upon his prior expectations about the program details.

TABLE 4.3.--COMPLETENESS OF PROGRAM ARRANGEMENTS UPON ARRIVAL IN TRAINING COUNTRY BY YEAR OF DEPARTURE
(In Percentages)

Upon Arrival Program Was:	Year of Departure				Total
	Up to 1950	1951-1954	1955-1958	1959-1961	
Completely arranged	54	52	57	64	57
Partially arranged	33	36	35	30	34
Not set up at all	13	12	8	6	9
Total[a] %	100	100	100	100	100
(N)	(407)	(3830)	(10694)	(3862)	(18793)

[a] Excludes N.A. and "Don't Know" (less than 1% in each category of years) on program arrangements (N=215) and N.A. on year of departure (N=17).

A less-than-complete program does offer a participant an additional opportunity to shape the nature of his program directly, to change it in some important way.[1] As one might expect, a majority of trainees, almost five-sixths, followed their programs as originally planned. Only 18 per cent had some important changes made in their program after they began it: a quarter of those whose programs weren't set up at all effected such changes, vs. one in six of those who found their program fully arranged upon arrival. Those whose programs underwent a change were more likely to attribute the initiative for it to themselves than to others; over half felt they had been the prime mover (Table 4.4). And, almost all of these changes were felt to have been "necessary" improvements.

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[1] The question read, in part: ". . . By [changes] I don't mean changes in travel routes or stopovers, but things like changing your course of study."

TABLE 4.4.--SOURCE OF CHANGE IN PROGRAM BY COMPLETENESS
OF PROGRAM ARRANGEMENTS
(In Percentages)

Program Change and Its Source	On Arrival Program Was:			Total
	Fully Arranged	Partially Arranged	Not Set Up At All	
Change in Program:				
Source				
Participant himself	8	13	12	10
Other person, agency	4	7	9	5
Not ascertainable	2	4	4	3
No Change, Followed as Planned	86	76	75	82
Total[a] %	100	100	100	100
(N)	(10787)	(6411)	(1612)	(18810)

[a] Excludes N.A. on either item (N=215).

No set of characteristics distinguished those who followed their programs as planned from others who effected some important change. The actual changes to which they referred were of various sorts, the more frequent ones being some modification or addition of subjects, or a change in the specific locus of the program. Interestingly, there is little evidence of any switching to degree programs: of all specified changes less than one-fifth could be seen as even tending in that direction. For the most part, these changes had the character of adjustments rather than drastic alterations (Table 4.5). Of course, the amount of changing that actually occurred is not a good measure of participants' desires in the matter, since participant training permits relatively little "consumer choice." We can get a better picture of their preferences, as contrasted with what actually took place in this regard, when we review their likes and dislikes and suggestions for future programming.

TABLE 4.5.--CHANGES MADE IN TRAINING PROGRAMS
(In Percentages)

Specific Changes	Per Cent[a]
Changed or added to the subjects studied	31.9
Changed location of training	24.3
Included more observation	11.3
Made it a longer program, included more training	9.0
Made it a shorter program	7.5
Included more practice, on-the-job training	7.5
Changed to a degree program	4.8
Included more academic study (nondegree)	4.7
Changed to a more advanced program	3.9
Changed to a less advanced program	1.3
All other changes specified	8.4
Changed program, unspecified	4.8
Don't know, no answer	3.5
Total %	122.9
(N)	(3493)

[a] Based on those who reported changes in their training program. Percentages add to more than 100% because of multiple answers.

Personal Counselling Upon Arrival

An effort is made to see that each participant is initially met by an official with some responsibility for his program, to establish a personal bond and to counsel the trainee on his next steps. Upon arrival nine in ten participants were met by someone who discussed training with them. In most cases, this initial contact was made with the trainee's project manager or program specialist, someone who may have been actively involved with his training program since it had first been formally proposed. About 15 per cent were met by another person, however, usually an official from the institution or agency responsible for their training program. This initial personal touch was greatly appreciated: among those who had been met, 91 per cent felt satisfied with the attention and guidance the project manager or coordinator gave them during their stay.

Since the beginning of this program of technical assistance, almost all trainees have come under the various aid agencies for administrative and budgeting purposes; responsibility for providing the actual training and for the management of trainees' programs has been delegated to other agencies and institutions, in a majority of cases.[1] The specific affiliation of the program manager varied with a participant's site or field of training. For example, ICA/AID officials have been responsible for managing the programs of three-quarters of trainees in atomic energy, while those trained in agriculture, health, and in labor had managers coming mostly from the cognate U. S. agencies. Someone working in ICA/AID or its predecessors was directly responsible for managing the programs of less than half (42%) of all participants. Trainees who were sponsored by universities rather than directly by AID usually had supervision from staff members of their institution.

Availability of someone to whom a participant could refer any problems arising during his sojourn varied according to the country of training. With a few exceptions (Japan most notably) those sent to "third countries" were left on their own two to three times as often as those trained in the U. S. Even such "American-oriented" sites as Puerto Rico, Canal Zone or Hawaii were not noticeably superior to foreign training sites (Table 4.6). As a final specification, the proportion who had no project manager has remained unchanged since 1951 at about one in ten.

The availability of a program manager might be thought of as having primarily a symbolic value (showing greater personal concern) or as being of some small administrative use (providing a focus of responsibility). The consequences of his absence were, however, real and unfavorable. Those who had none (or didn't remember whether they had) were less approving in their evaluations of participant training, and made relatively poorer use of it. An individual sent on a program that "fell between stools" on this score was likely to have had training that was seriously deficient in other respects as well. As a result, he was less effective after his return.

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[1] A detailed description, written in 1957 for a Congressional inquiry on the activities of U. S. Government agencies in the field of international education and training is probably the most comprehensive, albeit outdated source on these various programs. See: Department of State, Bureau of Public Affairs, Programs of International Cultural Cooperation and Technical Exchange of Agencies of the U. S. Government and Related International Organizations. A Report by Francis J. Colligan, together with a Supplement (November 1957). A more recent directory covers much the same ground less extensively. See: Department of State, Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, Some U. S. Governmental Agencies Engaged in International Activities (November 1963).

TABLE 4.6.--PROJECT MANAGER OF PARTICIPANTS' PROGRAMS BY PRIMARY TRAINING SITE (COUNTRY)
(In Percentages)

Workplace of Project Manager		Primary Training Site					Total
		Mainland U. S.	Japan	Offshore U. S.[a]	Lebanon	All Other Sites[b]	
Had One From:							
ICA/AID		44	47	26	20	39	42
Other government agency		33	3	30	-	15	30
University		10	-	15	42	6	11
Private organization		4	41	6	2	15	5
Don't know, remember		2	-	4	2	2	2
Had No Project Manager		8	9	19	34	23	10
Total[c]	%	101	100	100	100	100	100
	(N)	(15729)	(426)	(715)	(659)	(1409)	(18938)

[a] For example, Puerto Rico, Hawaii, Canal Zone.

[b] Includes participants trained in more than one (non-U. S.) country (N=677).

[c] Excludes N.A. on either item (N=87).

Dimensions of Training Programs

Many of the variables which define a program of training have been used at earlier points in this report, as a means of clarifying items then under review. Five important dimensions or aspects of training were focal topics in the survey: two of these (year and site of training) relate to the program's context, and three (field, type and duration) have more to do with the substantive character of training. We will present data on each of these separately, beginning with the year in which the sojourn began.

Historical Perspective: Year of Departure

In most of the countries where this evaluation study was completed technical assistance (of which participant training was an element) was initiated in the decade of the 1950's. A few trainees were sent earlier, notably from a few Latin American countries during World War II. For analytical purposes, we grouped the calendar years of departure (and return) into four time periods, partly on the basis of the number of trainees, but mainly in order to highlight the character of the program during the following relatively distinct periods in the history of U. S. foreign assistance:[1]

1. Up to 1950.--The period prior to the launching of programs of technical cooperation and assistance under Point IV agreements. Founding of first formal programs through the Institute of Inter-American Affairs (1942); aid to Greece and Turkey (1947); establishment of Economic Cooperation Administration to administer the Marshall Plan (1948); Pres. Truman's Inaugural statement of Point IV concept (1949).

2. 1951-1954.--The period of rapid alterations in the character of U. S. assistance programs. The creation of the Technical Cooperation Administration (1950) also marked the end of the Marshall plan; founding of the Mutual Security Agency (1951), which was in turn replaced by the Foreign Operations Administration (1953) during the first administration of Pres. Eisenhower. Most of the bilateral participant training agreements began in this period.

3. 1955-1958.--The period of consolidation of prior aid programs, with the formation of the International Cooperation Administration (1955). This period also witnessed a further expansion of assistance programs through U. S. Operations Missions to newly independent nations of the underdeveloped world. Participant training was reorganized and new procedures were established at the start of this period.

4. 1959-1961.--The period of transition to the formation of the Agency for International Development (1961). This period was chosen primarily to isolate ICA participants who had left for training (and returned) closest to the time that the study was conducted, and to provide a fourth point in time for the analysis of trends.[2]

One could exhaustively analyze the programs and participants during each of these time periods, and use other data from the survey to document more precisely the character of participant training during its history of almost two decades. These data are especially valuable, in this respect, for the period prior to the ICA years when records and statistics were not yet kept on a routine or standardized basis. We have followed another path, guided by the primarily evaluative focus of our inquiry; the time perspective or dimension is introduced where it illuminates some change or trend in the empirical data that is important for interpreting a finding, rather than simply for its descriptive value.[1] Here is how the participants were distributed by year of departure, and also by year of return. (The latter variable will not be used subsequently) (Table 4.7).

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[1] Various writers on aspects of postwar American foreign policy have used different periodizations as a means of demarcating shifts in programs and policies. See, for example, C. Thompson and W. Laves, Cultural Relations and U. S. Foreign Policy, op. cit.

[2] While three-quarters of the participants had been interviewed by the end of 1961 (and all had returned by then) only 1 per cent actually departed in that year. The terminal year of this time period would be stated more properly as the end of fiscal year 1961; the data were recorded, however, in calendar years.

TABLE 4.7.--YEAR OF DEPARTURE FOR TRAINING AND RETURN HOME: FOUR TIME PERIODS (In Percentages)

Time Period		Year Left for Training	Year of Return Home
Up to 1950		2[a]	1
1951 to 1954		20	15
1955 to 1958		57	50
1959 to 1961		21	34
Total[b]	%	100	100
	(N)	(19009)	(19005)

[a] The earliest recorded date was December 1941; the year 1950 alone accounts for more than one-third in this category.

[b] Excludes N.A. on each item.

In sum, whenever the categories of the variable "year of departure" are employed, the resulting findings may be viewed alternatively from two perspectives: they can serve to define the program realities in each period, and they also permit one to discern some trends over the years. The first time period, which contains the smallest number of participants, encompasses the programs of trainees from only five countries. As a result, findings relating to this period are heavily weighted by the specific character of the programs and participants in each. For later periods, this type of consideration is less important in interpreting the data.[2]

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[1] One problem in the use of these data for purposes of historical exploration is that some countries whose programs were important in scope or nature are not among those in which the survey was completed. The omission of all European countries and a few in Latin America is of particular importance for the period prior to 1955.

[2] For the period up to 1950, survey data exist for trainees from Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Greece and Turkey. Data from twenty countries are combined in the 1951-54 period, and from all twenty-three for the other two time periods.

Fields of Training

In previous sections a few references were made to findings linked in some way to the participants' fields of training. Participant training programs are administratively classified into several dozen subspecialties of less than a dozen principal "training fields of activity." There were too many of these to handle conveniently in this world wide analysis, and ultimately nine major (and one minor) training fields were chosen for use in describing and contrasting participants' evaluations.[1] Each contained one per cent or more of the surveyed participants; only six, however, were "major" in the cumulative numbers who have been trained over the years: agriculture (27%), industry and mining (15%), education (14%), health and sanitation (12%), public administration (11%), and transportation and mass communication (10%). The rise and fall in proportions trained in each over these time periods may have been influenced by changing U. S. priorities or policies, partly by shifts in the available "supply," and partly by alterations in the aggregate demand for certain kinds of training (Table 4.8).

Differences exist among the surveyed countries in the proportions trained in the major fields; these comprise another set of variations affecting the over-all figures. Presumably the balance of trainees in these fields should bear an intimate relationship to the sectoral needs in each nation. One would have to test this by examining these proportional distributions on a country by country basis, in the light of independently established needs and sectoral priorities in each. Such information in unavailable to us (if indeed it exists elsewhere in reliable form, after being systematically determined); these survey data are in any case too crude to permit confident speculation about the weight of such factors in setting the observed empirical pattern.

The classification scheme used here was devised originally for budgeting purposes as a set of labels for the categories of assistance projects. Technical training is usually a small component of such projects, although in some instances it has the status of an independent form of assistance. These labels constitute an imprecise tool for interpreting the survey data. First, each field actually contains a variety of distinct programs, sometimes differing in important ways from one another. Then in some instances closely similar (or identical) training programs may end up with different labels simply because of the budgetary designation of their parent projects. A good illustration is home economics: programs of training taken at the same locale or which follow the same curriculum can be listed under agriculture or education, depending on purely accidental, administrative considerations. And in a related vein, much training has the manifest purpose of preparing people to assume a teaching role in their specialties, although classified by this scheme into noneducational subject matter areas.

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[1] The full array of training fields, together with all their subspecialties is shown in tabular form in Appendix A. These fields are generally identical to those used in annual AID statistical reports. One or two subfields were shifted to facilitate certain comparisons. Recently, the field of Public Safety has been listed separately in AID reports; in our analysis (as in earlier official statistics) it is included in Public Administration.

TABLE 4.8.--MAJOR TRAINING FIELDS BY YEAR OF DEPARTURE OF PARTICIPANTS
(In Percentages)

Training Field		Year of Departure				Total
		Up to 1950	1951-1954	1955-1958	1959-1961	
Agriculture		17.3	33.0	25.3	24.4	26.5
Industry and mining		6.2	14.6	13.1	20.7	14.8
Education		1.2	11.1	16.7	11.5	14.2
Health and sanitation		56.3	15.7	11.3	6.5	12.2
Public administration		1.3	9.3	11.8	11.6	11.0
Transportation and communication		14.2	8.9	9.8	10.0	9.7
Labor		2.0	4.4	5.1	7.8	5.5
Community development		- [a]	1.3	2.3	3.4	2.3
Atomic energy		-	- [a]	1.9	1.2	1.4
Others, N.A.		1.0	1.5	2.8	3.0	2.6
Total[b]	%	99.5	99.8	100.0	100.1	100.2
	(N)	(410)	(3887)	(10814)	(3898)	(19009)

[a] Less than .5%.

[b] Excludes N.A. on year of departure (N=16).

As a result, these categories are vague and uncommunicative with respect to the specific content of training subsumed by each. They are used here descriptively, chiefly as a way of identifying the broad substantive contexts of trainees' programs. A refined analysis must focus upon other basic program dimensions, those which cut across these rather ambiguous contexts. In trying to assess strong and weak points in training, greater weight must be placed upon such program features as duration, type and site, and those attributes of participants which can be shown to affect their reception of training.

Because training fields are pivotal distinctions in AID programming and administration, we have prepared a special analysis of each of the major ones mentioned above, and appended it to the report (Appendix A). There we adopt an explicitly comparative perspective: the survey data are used to draw a "profile" of each, comparing them in terms of programs, participants and outcomes of training. From these detailed analyses a more integrated conception of the substance of training in each can be derived. (In this appendix, survey data are also presented on two other interesting trainee groups: those not trained in their occupational specialty, and those trained more than once.) Those with interests in a particular field can gain a quick overview by reading the section devoted to it, and perusing the summary tabulations of findings contained therein. Some of these findings will also be noted in passing in the body of the report.

Country of Training: Program Sites

Since the earliest days of this program training has been carried on chiefly in the United States, for many reasons. American training facilities are more numerous, and better known to the officials responsible for program development. The eagerly sought organizational "know-how," which is almost uniquely an American invention in the eyes of the world, is best studied and acquired at its source. And the broad policy aim of diffusing more widely a greater understanding of American institutions, of its people and culture can be more directly (though not invariably better) served by a sojourn in the United States.

But these and other domestic considerations have not always, or in all cases, dictated the choice of training sites; the personal needs and circumstances of the individual, and the requirements of his nation have also had to be weighed. The gap in social, educational, or occupational conditions between a trainee's own country and the U. S. may be too great to bridge, creating stresses which leave him disoriented and ineffective. Also, some American productive processes demand a large amount of capital or high levels of technological sophistication, and are ill-adapted to the poorer physical or technical base in a trainee's nation. In such cases little useful transfer of skill or operating practices can be made. Cost comparisons have also been a variably relevant consideration in allocating participants to training sites.

Obviously, a training site which creates problems, or erects barriers to learning or to the adoption of practices by trainees upon their return home should not be chosen. In recognition of this, training programs began to be offered at other "third country" sites[1]--where educational facilities were adequate, and conditions were more congenial to a trainee's learning of pertinent work skills, and for giving him exposure to the principles, techniques and social norms which foster productivity (or "modernization," in more general terms). There is a continuing debate over the relative worth of an investment in the training of participants in these settings as compared with U. S. sites, or with institutions in their own countries. One of the questions to which the survey was specifically directed was the merit of third country training, its strengths and shortcomings. Therefore, "site" became a strategic element in evaluating participant training.

The relevant data were recorded in a rather complex fashion; countries were classified as primary, secondary and tertiary, in terms of the length of time trainees spent in each. We have reduced the large number of site patterns in the training careers of these participants by classifying each trainee's program in two ways: was it in one country or more than one? Was it primarily (or solely) in the United States or in another country? The significant patterns of site-selection were further reduced to five categories:

1. Mainland U. S. sites only.--This was the most prevalent pattern of training by far; almost three out of four (73%) participants are included in it. By sheer weight of numbers it sets the standard for the entire sample in the character of its participants, programs and evaluations.

2. Mainland U. S. sites primarily.--This was the second most prevalent single pattern of training; one in ten (10%) spent a brief period of time elsewhere, usually after the completion of his major stay in the U. S. Participants in this category are

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[1] In standard bureaucratic parlance, the host country is the "first," the U. S. is the "second" and any other place is the "third country" for training.

almost always indistinguishable from those in the preceding group in the nature of their programs and their evaluations, and for analytical purposes the two groups will often be combined.

3. Offshore U. S. only.--This phase has been adopted for want of any other which more aptly covers a group of sites in former and current territories such as Puerto Rico, Hawaii, Canal Zone, Alaska, Virgin Islands, etc.; almost 3 per cent were trained there. Frequently we treat Puerto Rico separately, because more trainees (2%) were trained there alone than in most other third countries.

4. Other third country sites only.--This group of countries accounts for about one in ten of the returned participants. They are further separated in later analysis into countries with sizable numbers of past trainees--Lebanon (3.5%), Japan, Philippines, and China (Taiwan)--and all other countries used as sole sites for participant training.

5. All other patterns of site-selection.--Included here are a small number of trainees who received most of their training elsewhere but also spent very brief periods in the U. S., and those who were trained in two (or more) countries other than the above-specified major sites. This catch-all category accounts for less than 4 per cent of the participants; as could be expected their programs were extremely diverse in character.

These were the most important empirical patterns uncovered in the survey data. When these categories are used to analyze the nature of training programs, we often combine a few whose trainees' response configurations are similar, in order to bring salient differences among the rest into sharper focus. One could trace and describe at length the special character of trainees and programs at each of the principal sites. For our purposes, since the U. S. looms so large as a training site such a refined analysis seems unwarranted. Instead, we employ the classification of program sites mainly when the issue of third country vs. U. S. training is implicated in the data.

Number of sites.--The distinction between primary (or sole) and secondary training sites requires further comment. First, a large majority of participants are trained on programs that take place solely in one country: the survey found seven out of eight spent their entire program time in one country, although they may have trained at several locales in it. An additional 8 per cent went to one country primarily, but also spent a lesser period of time in another. Only 5 per cent visited three or even more (up to five) countries, each for successively briefer periods. Sojourns in only one country usually lasted longer than two months, while stays in additional countries were usually for less than two months. Therefore, even for those trained in several countries our classification of their country of training was centered upon the primary site.[1]

Some countries, such as Canada, have served as secondary sites almost exclusively, while others have been used almost as frequently for primary as for supplementary training periods; Puerto Rico and Japan fit the latter image. Lebanon, on the other hand, differs from any other site in its almost exclusive function as a sole training site (for students attending the American University in Beirut). A tabulation of the most frequently used training sites for these participants reflects these patterns among the countries (Table 4.9).

TABLE 4.9.--PRIMARY, SECONDARY AND TERTIARY COUNTRIES AS SITES FOR TRAINING
(Ranked by Numbers Trained in Each)

Primary[a]	Secondary[b]	Tertiary[c]
Mainland U. S.	Japan	Germany
Lebanon	Puerto Rico	Great Britain
Puerto Rico	Canada	Japan
Japan	Mainland U. S.	Philippines
Philippines	Great Britain	Puerto Rico
Offshore U. S.	Mexico	Mexico
China (Taiwan)	Philippines	France
Costa Rica	China (Taiwan)	Italy
	France	Offshore U. S.
	Germany	Jamaica
	Jamaica	

[a] Sole or primary country of training; 1% (or more) of total in each. These eight include 99% of all participants.

[b] Country of second longest period of training; 2% (or more) of total in each. These eleven include 83% of the participants trained at two sites.

[c] Country of third longest period of training; 3% (or more) of total in each. These ten include 62% of the participants trained at three sites.

In addition to its delineation of the dominant role played by U. S. mainland and offshore sites, this tabulation shows that Canada and the industrial countries of Western Europe were restricted to the status of secondary training sites. While

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[1] Its paramount importance can be gleaned from the following: 9% of primary (or sole) country stays, versus 90% of secondary, and 99% of tertiary country stays lasted less than two months. Cutting it even more finely, 1% of primary (or sole) country stays, versus 34% of secondary, and 56% of tertiary country stays lasted less than two weeks. Programs of such brief duration can more properly be termed stop-overs than sojourns.

87 per cent of all former trainees went to the U. S. or one of its territories, only one per cent received most or all of their training in Europe.

Interchanges among countries.--Of the countries surveyed all but four[1] sent a majority of their trainees to the United States mainland for their primary training stay. At the other extreme, countries such as Turkey, Greece and Egypt sent almost all solely to the U. S. For these four and also for some others training centers in their immediate region provided an alternative site. (We will treat Puerto Rico as a "third country" in this connection.) For example, the bulk of trainees sent to Taiwan came from Vietnam, while the majority sent to Japan for their primary training stay came from Taiwan. The Far Eastern nations seem to have served as a series of stepping stones for each others' participants, sending and receiving them in accordance with their value as demonstration models in certain training fields. Taiwan's strong areas appeared to be transportation and agriculture; Japan's was agriculture, and in the Philippines they were education and community development.

In the Middle East, Lebanon was the principal alternative to the U. S. for training; it served in this role for many participants from Ethiopia, Jordan, Pakistan and Morocco, giving programs in health and sanitation and education relatively more than did other sites. Puerto Rico was a strong alternative as a sole or primary training site for participants from Latin America, in particular for those from the small nations of Central America and the Caribbean. Among its more prominent fields of training were education, industry and mining, and labor.

The proportion trained solely or primarily in the U. S. is therefore affected by the proximity and pertinence of regional training sites as alternatives (Table 4.10). Perhaps influenced by a growing recognition of the problem of cultural or technological gaps between assisted countries and the U. S., this proportion has declined steadily over the years. Prior to 1951 almost 100 per cent went to the U. S. (95% solely); by the end of the decade 76 per cent were sent to the U. S. for their primary training stay (60% solely). More recent figures in AID Annual Reports for the 1960's show a fairly steady ratio of 3:1 between U. S. arrivals and third country trainees, despite the opening of new training facilities or opportunities outside the U. S.

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[1] Ethiopia, Surinam, Nicaragua, British Honduras.

TABLE 4.10.--THE U. S. MAINLAND AS A PRIMARY TRAINING SITE (AND IMPORTANT ALTERNATIVE SITES) BY PARTICIPANTS' COUNTRY OF ORIGIN
(In Percentages)

Country of Origin	Sole or Primary Training Site[a]	
	Mainland U. S.	Alternative Sites[b]
Turkey	98	-
Greece	98	-
India	98	-
Philippines	95	-
Egypt	94	-
Israel	94	-
Chile	93	-
Brazil	93	-
Korea	85	-
Pakistan	77	(Lebanon) 17
Taiwan	73	(Japan) 22
Jamaica	65	-
Costa Rica	62	(Puerto Rico) 11
British Guiana	61	(Puerto Rico) 35
Ecuador	55	(Puerto Rico) 11
Jordan	51	(Lebanon) 41
Vietnam	50	(Far East Trio) 31[c]
Ethiopia	43	(Lebanon) 55
Surinam	37	(Puerto Rico) 49
Nicaragua	37	(Puerto Rico) 18
British Honduras	22	(Puerto Rico) 67
Total	83	-

[a] Each row adds up to 100%; the balance not shown for each country was scattered among other sites.

[b] Countries that trained 10% or more from each.

[c] Philippines (16%), Taiwan (8%) and Japan (7%).

Of course, many of the more knotty problems in participant training (such as language skills, orientation, counselling, academic preparation and achievements) stem from the preeminence of U. S. sites as chosen locales for the training of foreign nationals. Many of the persistent difficulties in cross-cultural encounters could be minimized or eliminated by a reduced flow of trainees here. Given the concern for the nontechnical objectives of the program, however, it is unlikely that a sojourn in the U. S. will cease to be the core experience for the great majority of participants, even if (as is equally unlikely) equivalent technical training could be found elsewhere.

The Structure of Training Programs: Formal and Composite Types

Participant training is carried out by means of programs that differ widely both in form and content. One question that has often been debated is the relative merits of the major types of training--the costs and benefits associated with each--and in particular the value of longer or shorter-term programs in achieving the various objectives of training. Although over the years many formal types of training programs have been devised, a few which have been used fairly consistently served as a basis for exploring this important structural aspect of training. Each participant was offered the following set of categories as a prologue to being queried about the specific character of his own program.

> Now I'd like to ask you about your actual training program. There are several kinds of things that participants do in their training, and I'd like you to tell me which kinds you did in your program. There are observation tours which usually last between 3 and 8 weeks; there is on-the-job training where the participant has actual work experience; there is attendance at a university; and there are programs designed especially for groups of participants, not at a university and not observation tours.
>
> Was any of your time spent on an observation tour? In on-the-job training? In attendance at a university as an individual or a member of a group? In a special group program not at a university?

Participants' programs have been so diverse that even this carefully worded statement failed to prevent some ambiguity or misunderstandings from appearing in their responses, particularly in those of trainees who went on briefer programs as members of a group. Time lags and the perils of translation into many languages may also have contributed to conceptual and empirical problems in the description of their training programs. But these formal types provided a framework which enabled most participants to discuss their training in comparable terms, and our analysis of program structure will be based upon those cited most often. A review of the numbers sent for the main types of training and the time spent in each will lead us to consider some composite types of training rather than each formal type alone, since a majority of participants' programs combined two or more types.

Formal types.--The observation tour has been by far the most common type of training program; almost three-quarters (71%) of the participants went on some version of one as individuals, in groups, or in teams. University studies were cited next most often, by over one-half (52%) of former trainees. (For a majority of them, the university setting was more a place of training. Fewer than one-half were enrolled as regular students, a fact to which we will return in raising the issue of "degree-getting," or the relative merits of participant training at or by universities.) Opportunities for on-job training, involving the placement of trainees in work settings within private industry, governmental agencies, or other organizations and associations, were provided to more than two-fifths (42%) of the trainees. And finally, a small proportion of participants (21%) made the special group character of their program the central defining element in their description of training.[1]

Time spent in each.--The amount of time trainees were actually engaged in each of these program types varied considerably. In general, the less intensive ones, such as observation tours and those devised for special groups or teams of trainees were the shortest; only relatively small proportions spent as much as four months (or more) in them. On-job training ran typically for somewhat longer periods, although one-half of all such programs lasted less than four months. By way of contrast, most of those sent to academic settings for training went for time periods which were the equivalent of between one and four semesters of course work or study; longer, if participants had the status of regular students than otherwise. These differences in duration are well reflected in the medians and the clustering of each of the formal types of programs into certain time intervals. The substantial equivalence of several less intensive types of programs on this significant time dimension can also be observed (Table 4.11).

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[1] This last category is ambiguous or residual in character; it laid primary stress upon what training was not rather than what it was. In spite of the effort to keep them distinct, a confusion or overlap in meaning exists between it and observation tours or university group programs, judging from the empirical characterizations and evaluations of them.

TABLE 4.11.--TIME SPENT IN EACH OF THE FORMAL TYPES OF PROGRAMS: MEDIANS AND PROPORTIONS

Formal Type of Program	Median (Months)	Time Spent in Each (In Percentages)					Total Number[a] (=100%)
		Up to 2 Mos.	2-4 Mos.	4-6 Mos.	6 Mos -1 Yr.	Over 1 Yr.	
A. Observation Tours	2.4	42	38	12	7	1	(13361)
B. University Studies[b]							
As regular student	10.7	2	6	8	43	41[c]	(4206)
As special student	5.9	13	19	19	40	9	(4227)
In group program	2.5	43	26	11	16	4	(2103)
C. On-Job Training	3.9	22	28	18	26	6	(8043)
D. Special (nonuniversity) group program	1.8	56	23	10	9	2	(3808)

[a] N.A.'s on time spent in each type were excluded from the base, in calculating medians and proportions.

[b] The totals in each subcategory add up to more than the number who mentioned any attendance at a university; some mentioned attending several, or in more than one capacity.

[c] One-quarter of this group (10% of all regular students) had programs of this type solely, lasting two years or longer.

Composite types.--One important determinant of the length of time devoted to each type (and, by extension, the total time spent in training) was whether or not a participant's program consisted of more than one type. A majority of trainees (55%) have had programs which combined two or more types. The time spent on each type in a program consisting of one solely was invariably longer than if that type wan an element of a composite program. This was especially notable with both university studies and on-job training; the median time spent on either solely was twice as long as when either was part of a combined program.[1] An observation tour was usually fairly brief, whether experienced alone or in the context of a composite program; the same was true of special group programs (Table 4.12).

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[1] One should not confuse the time spent in each type, being used at this point in the discussion, with the total time spent on a training program. The duration of training, which we will analyze in a succeeding section, was derived from questions dealing with the time spent in various sites (countries) of training. Thus it includes time spent in orientation sessions, travel, special features, and, of course, in each of the actual combination of program types if a participant encountered more than one.

TABLE 4.12.--MEDIAN TIME SPENT IN FORMAL TYPES OF PROGRAMS: ALONE OR IN COMBINATION[a]

(In Months)

Formal Type of Program	If Each Type Solely	If Combined With Other Types
A. Observation tours	2.8 (4160)	2.2 (9201)
B. University studies	13.8 (2148)	6.7 (7792)
C. On-job training	6.6 (1663)	3.6 (6380)
D. Special (nonuniversity) group	2.8 (540)	1.6 (3268)

[a] Excludes N.A. on time spent in each of the four types separately. Numbers in parentheses were the bases for computing each median value. Each category in the column "combined with other types" necessarily includes participants who are counted in others too.

A typology of training programs.--To gauge the relative merits of each formal type, both in isolation and in combination, we developed a program typology. Evaluations of training could then be related more realistically to the structure of the program being discussed. Each participant's depiction of the character of his program served as a basis for locating it in this typology. Its categories and the number of trainees whose programs were included in each are shown below (Table 4.13). This method of analyzing the structure of programs confirms the central importance of two variant modes of training: the observation tour (alone or with others), and university studies (usually as the major component of a composite program). By comparison, the two other formal types share a more peripheral status. The results also forcefully underline the variety in programming which has been the norm for participant training. For, apart from the large group (22%) who took observation tours only, relatively few participants encountered just one type of program. The administratively more complex and challenging road of providing a multiplicity of training experience was, judging from these program descriptions, the one which was followed for most participants.

TABLE 4.13.--A TYPOLOGY OF TRAINING PROGRAMS AND THE PARTICIPANTS IN EACH CATEGORY

Typology of Programs[a]	Participants	
	Number	Per Cent
1. Observation only	4180	22.0
2. University and observation	4000	21.0
3. University, OJT and observation	2676	14.1
4. OJT and observation	2616	13.7
5. University only	2151	11.3
6. OJT only	1664	8.7
7. University and OJT	1146	6.0
8. Special (nonuniversity) group only[b]	592	3.1
Total	19025	99.9

[a] Observation tour = "Observation"; On-job training = "OJT"; University studies = "University."

[b] This category includes 52 participants not elsewhere classified. Participants who had special group programs combined with other types are distributed among the other categories of the typology; most were combined with observation tours and university studies, alone or conjointly.

Over the years, the relative number of complex programs (i.e., those containing two or more types) declined: 62 per cent of the pre-1951 trainees reported such programs as opposed to 45 per cent sent more recently (1959-1961). The decline was correlated with (1) a sharp increase in the use of observation tours solely, and (2) a reduction in the use of on-job training in any program format. All this took place in a period when participant training was being extended to ever more countries and greater numbers were arriving annually, with no corresponding increase in its budget. It may have been that the growing demand for training was met within the limits of available resources by spreading opportunities through the use of observation tours and group programs, and by training more people in third countries to keep costs down.

One might speculate about the role of other factors, such as the changing character of participants. For example, we noted earlier that the educational level of selectees was declining. These two trends may be interrelated; program development must start "where the trainee is," and more intensive or long-lasting training makes greater demands upon one's preexisting skills and knowledge. Less well educated selectees would have to be programmed differently than those holding degrees. In partial support of this speculation is the fact that university graduates were far more likely to get university-based training, and more likely to have been enrolled in degree programs.

Other differences in the patterns of use of these program types were related to a cluster of attributes and occupational settings of the selectees. The oldest trainees, those who also had the most experience in their work specialties and, especially, those holding jobs at the highest status levels were all much more likely to have been sent solely on observation tours. Longer or more complex programs were and are scheduled less often for them because they hadn't time to spare, or because the predominantly administrative character of their work made practical training or academic studies less immediately relevant. Conversely, the youthful and inexperienced trainees could and did more often find their interests better served in some sort of university program, as did scientists and others in the professional category. Engineers and technicians were more often given an opportunity for practical on-job training. And as noted earlier, women were sent much more often for university studies than men: three-quarters of them did so (versus 50% of men), and fully twice as many solely (23% vs. 10%).

The sites of training show differing patterns in the structure of their programs. For example, Puerto Rico and other offshore U. S. sites were widely used to give trainees practical, on-job experience; university studies also appeared with some frequency among their offerings. The main third country sites in the Far East were used heavily, or almost exclusively, (with the partial exception of the Philippines) for observation tours or on-job training, alone or jointly. Lebanon and the U. S. mainland accounted for most of the programs consisting wholly or in major part of university-based training. In general, each of the third country sites seems to be limited and specialized in fields and types of training, while training in the U. S. runs the gamut of programming possibilities.

The main fields of training display contrasts in their "mix" of program types. Those with programs of a more pronounced technical or professional character generally show a more diversified program structure, usually with university training at its core. Thus, programs in atomic energy, education, agriculture, and health were distinguished by one or more of these hallmarks: heavy use of universities; less reliance on observation tours; more programs of the complex type. Conversely, fields such as community development or labor had programs that reflected a greater use of observation tours and less use of university settings. In order to reveal their diversity in less than overwhelming detail, we will use the three major types; it should be clear from the proportions in each one which were the more prominent type-combinations in each field (Table 4.14).

TABLE 4.14.--FORMAL TYPES OF TRAINING AND THE PROPORTION WITH COMPOSITE PROGRAMS BY MAJOR FIELDS OF TRAINING
(In Percentages)

Training Field	Composite Type	Participants Whose Programs Consisted of:			Total[a] (N) (=100%)
		Any Obs.	Any Univ.	Any OJT	
Atomic energy	80	67	73	72	(259)
Agriculture	63	78	57	42	(5043)
Health and education	60	64	63	48	(2320)
Public administration	59	72	58	43	(2093)
Community development	57	84	55	31	(432)
Education	52	63	78	23	(2692)
Labor	47	83	50	17	(1040)
Transportation and communication	46	63	21	63	(1847)
Industry and mining	45	71	28	51	(2811)
Total[b]	55	71	52	42	(18537)

[a] Base for percentaging in each field.

[b] Excludes a miscellany of other fields, e.g., trade and investment (N=488).

University Training as a Separate Type: Earned Degrees

The impressive growth in the numbers of foreign students on American campuses, spurred only partly by governmental programs, is a postwar phenomenon that has provoked much study and debate. Although participant training has not figured prominently in this development, because its academically-based programs were shorter-term and more specialized, its participants and cooperating institutions share to some degree many of the focal problems of these investigations.[1] And, perhaps as a reflection of the increasingly close links between government and universities in this field, while earlier contributions to the literature showed a keen concern with practical problems of student adjustment and attitudes, more recent discussions have been focussed upon broader institutional issues such as: the proper role of universities in foreign programs (and vice versa), the maintenance of scholarly standards and purposes, the place of foreign student training within the total educational mission of the university, the value of foreign vs. local education, the personal and policy implications of nonreturning students, and so on.[2]

In the preceding section, university studies were shown to be one of the two core forms or building blocks of participant training, whether used alone or, more frequently, as the principal element in a composite program. For both the academic community and the Agency an appraisal of this type of training has great practical significance, and an evaluation of the trainees' experiences is especially strategic. For the Agency, university training is perhaps an inherently riskier or more speculative venture in achieving program objectives. It requires a relatively greater per capita expenditure of (trainee) time and (Agency) money; it is less directly supported, coordinated or controlled by AID officials; and it can give rise, in boomerang fashion, to the issue of "degree-getting" as a source of trainee discontent. What have been the experiences of trainees who have confronted (usually for fairly extensive periods) the complex challenges and lures of the more permissive academic environment? How do they react to the possibility of gaining a degree (with all its personal status or market value) as a more tangible symbol of their stay abroad, a prospect which is raised most sharply by their training context? How do they evaluate their academic sojourn, and how pervasive is the concern over degrees, gotten or foregone, as a goal or by-product of training? The answers to some of these questions form the subject matter of this section; let us first review a few basic facts about university training.

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[1] A recent study, also commissioned by the Office of Participant Training of AID, explored the views of staff and administrators at some of the universities and other training facilities in the U. S. on the operation of the program. See: R. D. Dugan, J. F. Bristol and H. D. Miller, A Pilot Study of Participant Training in the United States. (Washington, D. C.: Institute for International Services, 1963).

[2] On the more general problems of the links between the foreign student, the American academic world, and U. S. government programs several recent sources can be cited: John W. Gardner, AID and the Universities. (Washington, D. C.: Agency for International Development, 1964); Education and World Affairs, The Foreign Student: Whom Shall We Welcome? (New York, 1964); M. Brewster Smith, "Foreign vs. Indigenous Education," in D. C. Piper and T. Cole (eds.), Post-Primary Education and Political and Economic Development. (Durham: Duke University Press, 1964), pp. 48-74; Gregory Henderson. "Foreign Students: Exchange or Immigration?", International Development Review, Volume VI, No. 4 (December 1964), pp. 19-21. The Institute of International Education, the major organization with a continuing interest and role in these developments has issued a series of publications over the years, by its Committee on Educational Interchange Policy, which are basic sources for a balanced consideration of the many interlocked issues in this field.

Earlier we saw that 52 per cent of all participants spent some time in university training, usually for six to twelve months; longer, if enrolled as regular students, and for much shorter periods, if special students or part of a group program. Almost four in five (78%) went to one institution; an additional 15 per cent spent time at two, and the rest went to still more (up to five) colleges in the course of their training. Although over 250 universities and colleges were mentioned, during the years covered by the survey twenty-four--a relative handful in the U. S., together with the University of Puerto Rico and American University of Beirut--accounted for a majority (51%) of all who were sent for university training (Table 4.15). More recent statistics (for 1964-65) show a similar concentration, although different institutions are involved: 27 institutions (out of almost 300) accounted for more than 47 per cent of all AID-sponsored university trainees.[1]

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[1] Data supplied by Office of International Training of AID and reported in: Forrest G. Moore, "The Collegiate Environment: The Experience and Reactions of Foreign Students. . ." (A Conference paper). Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Social Science Research, October 1965.

TABLE 4.15.--SUMMARY DISTRIBUTION OF UNIVERSITY-TRAINED PARTICIPANTS BY INSTITUTIONS, AND THE TOP TWENTY CENTERS

Size Categories of Enrollment (Number of Trainees)	Number of Institutions	University Trainees	
		Number	Per Cent
100 or more[a]	24	5115	51.4
25 to 99	57	3183	31.6
Less than 25	177	1299	13.1
Not identified, N.A.	-[b]	392	3.9
Total[c]	258	9944	100.0

[a] This category includes all institutions that enrolled 1% or more of all university trainees (using both weighted and unweighted figures) during the years covered by the survey.

[b] Includes an unidentified number of North American institutions that enrolled a total of 305 students.

[c] The total number trained at universities fluctuates by about 100 participants from item to item, because of vagaries in coding or the inclusiveness of the question.

THE TOP TWENTY TRAINING CENTERS
(In order)

1. American University of Beirut (Lebanon)
2. American University (Washington, D. C.)
3. University of Puerto Rico (Puerto Rico)
4. Michigan State University (East Lansing)
5. University of Minnesota (Minneapolis)
6. Cornell University (Ithaca, New York)
7. Pennsylvania State University (University Park)
8. University of Wisconsin (Madison)
9. Texas A & M (Arlington)
10. University of Illinois (Urbana)

11. University of Indiana (Bloomington)
12. Purdue University (Lafayette, Indiana)
13. University of Michigan (Ann Arbor)
14. University of California (Berkeley)
15. Harvard University (Cambridge, Massachusetts)
16. George Washington University (Washington, D. C.)
17. Ohio State University (Columbus)
18. Oklahoma State University (Stillwater)
19. University of Missouri (Columbia)
20. Kansas State University (Manhattan)

Most of these major training locales are part of the great land-grant college and state university network spread across the nation, academic centers whose explicit goals of public service may permit them a greater amount of institutional flexibility in fitting novel or unanticipated training programs into their curricula and schedules.

Some of their course offerings tend also to be more closely attuned to the practical or applied aspects of given subject matter areas. Their size, the diversity of their student body, special educational or tactical advantages that might inhere in certain geographic locations, and previous experience with programs of international assistance and exchange are some of the other reasons for their prominence as sites for training.

Regular and special students.--Trainees were sent to universities as regularly enrolled students, in some special status, or as members of a group program; two-fifths (42%) fell into the first category. This distinction is a key one, since it bears on the acquisition of a degree while in training, and since some participant attributes or other aspects of their programs were interrelated with student status. For example, the younger the trainee was when selected, the more likely was he to go to a university, and as a regular student. Then, those who already held a university-level degree were more likely to be sent as regular (graduate) students than those who were less well educated. The structure of a program was correlated with this distinction too: three-fifths of trainees whose program was taken solely at a university were regular students, compared with about one-third who went to one as part of a composite type of program. The duration of training was, therefore, also necessarily related with student status: the type of program with the highest proportion of regular students is also the one which consisted of the longest training (Table 4.16).

TABLE 4.16.--PROPORTION WHO WERE REGULAR STUDENTS AND MEDIAN DURATION OF TRAINING AMONG UNIVERSITY-TRAINED PARTICIPANTS BY THEIR PROGRAM TYPE

Typology of Programs[a]	Regular Students (Per Cent)	Median Duration (Months)
University only	59	16.9
University and OJT	40	13.8
University, OJT and observation	37	11.8
University and observation	37	11.6

[a] Restricted to those whose programs consisted solely or in large part of university studies; for total number in each category see Table 4.13.

But the principal significance of the distinction lies in the larger proportion of regularly enrolled students who return home with a degree as a result of training. Just over one-quarter (26%) of those sent on university programs (13% of all participants) earned some degree in training. But more than half (52%) of those who were regular students did so, compared with only 6 per cent of other university-trained participants. Almost all the degrees whose character was ascertained were either at the Master's (75%) or Bachelor's (23%) levels. The relatively tight administrative control over the process of acquiring a degree in training which has been exerted in the past is reflected in the fact that five-sixths of all the degrees were earned by trainees deliberately enrolled as regular students under the program. There seems to have been little slippage from the more limited objectives of most university training programs toward the individual pursuit of a degree, unless it was originally planned as an end-product of the university stay.

A lesser token of a period of training at a university was the award of a nonacademic certificate or formal citation. About one-third of university trainees received one. Adding this to the proportion who actually earned degrees emphasizes further the difference between regular and special student status. For, while less than one-quarter (23%) of the former went home empty-handed, almost twice as many of the latter (43%) did so.

These findings help to bring into sharper focus the two main patterns of relationship between participant training and the universities. In one, individual foreign nationals are sent to a university and supported by the U. S. aid program, but are otherwise on their own; for them the university can play its traditional role of transmitting knowledge and bestowing degrees as symbols of successful passage. In the other, the university serves mainly as a setting or facility for limited programs of instruction; its autonomy in performing this training function is appreciably less than in carrying out its standard educational programs. Does this contextual difference in university-based programs and the functions they serve have any impact on the trainees' opinions as to the worth of a degree? How helpful do they believe a degree is or might have been as an end-product of training, and in what ways?

Career value of a degree.--Those whose programs included any university studies were asked to evaluate the likely impact of a degree on their future careers. If they had been granted one, they were asked about its future impact; if they hadn't, they were asked what its impact would have been. Both groups were also asked to give reasons for their expressed beliefs.[1]

As expected, most of the trainees evaluated the impact of a degree upon their career in quite favorable terms. Two-thirds or more of those who attended a university during training saw at least some benefits accruing to themselves, depending upon the context of their program; that is, whether they had been regular or special students. Among special students, whether they earned a degree or not made little difference in their views, but among regular students those who ended training in possession of an earned degree were far more enthusiastic about its future impact on their careers (Table 4.17).

TABLE 4.17.--PERCEIVED CAREER VALUE OF A DEGREE FOR UNIVERSITY-TRAINED PARTICIPANTS BY THEIR STUDENT STATUS AND RECEIPT OF A DEGREE IN TRAINING
(In Percentages)

Career Value of a Degree[a]		Regular Student		Special Student		Total
		Earned Degree	No Degree	Earned Degree	No Degree	
Very helpful		72	58	46	48	57
Somewhat helpful		19	16	25	18	18
Not at all helpful		6	20	23	26	19
Don't know		3	6	6	8	6
Total[b]	%	100	100	100	100	100
	(N)	(2183)	(1844)	(318)	(3749)	(8094)

[a] Degree recipients: "Do you think the degree will help . . . ?"
Nonrecipients: "Do you think a degree would have helped . . . ?"

[b] Excludes those who were N.A. in each student/degree category; also excludes those sent on special group programs at a university (N=1846).

Prior educational achievements also affected trainees' attitudes to a degree. While university trainees were generally enthusiastic the two groups with even more positive views on the career-enhancing effects of a degree were (1) those who already held one, and (2) those who had never even attended a university previously. For the former, the second degree which participant training enabled them to earn was a welcome means of augmenting an already high level of achieved competence and status, while for the latter the degree which training permitted them to acquire opened a range of opportunities that might otherwise have bypassed them entirely.

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[1] Unfortunately, those who did not attend a university as part of their training program were not asked this set of questions. The evaluations of a degree's career impact by this strategic group of participants are therefore not available for comparative purposes.

But a degree was so generally seen as exerting a favorable influence upon one's career that closer analysis failed to reveal other significant variations among trainees. One might surmise that the large number of participants not trained at universities would have been no less positive in their evaluations than, for example, special students who didn't earn a degree, had they been asked. The reasons expressed by university trainees for their judgments were of essentially the same character, whether they had earned a degree or not. (Those who hadn't were slightly less voluble and more dubious.) Of all the career contributions a degree was seen as making, three stood out in particular: the resulting gain in personal capacity (knowledge, ability, self-confidence), or in social or professional prestige, or in their heightened chances for gaining a better job.

One inference from these data is that greater trainee satisfaction in the long run could be secured by offering them the prospect of gaining a degree as a result of training. But an increased emphasis upon training programs leading to a degree can have unfortunate consequences for the development projects and schemes which participant training is meant to serve. The great virtue of a degree program to a participant is its chief defect in the eyes of the development planner: it tends to enhance measurably the returned participant's potential mobility in the occupational sphere. The lasting value of such a program accrues to the person who earns the degree, whatever the original intention of his sponsors. And unless his posttraining job placement is appropriate in the trainee's eyes, or his mobility is rigidly controlled, for example by some contractual obligation to serve in a specific job for a defined period of time, the resulting temptation to seek out the opportunities which a foreign degree affords may be too great to resist.

This is, of course, one proximate cause of the "brain drain" or "nonreturning" educated citizens from the underdeveloped countries. The sense of futility arising from poor placement after a long and costly training period, or impatience with the slow pace of acceptance of modern practices and ideas acquired abroad are two reactions which can influence a returnee to give up or reduce the felt priority of the societal goals for which training was undertaken, replacing them with the pursuit of his personal advantage.

It is a requirement of participant training that selectees obligate themselves to serve for a certain period after their return; how many of them actually honor or are kept to this is unknown. It is in this connection that we point out that the net effect of degree programs can therefore be self-defeating from the perspective of its relative contribution to the fostering of occupationally-relevant skills needed for national development.

Duration of Training: Fact and Preference

Many points of contrast among the various types of training programs are reflected in, or intrinsically related to, differences in their over-all length. The duration of a program is crucial to the impacts that training can have, not only on skills and knowledge but also upon a participant's beliefs and values. The focus of this study is upon the former class of effects; but it is perhaps worth pointing out that a trainee's sense of commitment to an occupation or development task, or his determination or motivation to persist in efforts to use his skills are among the necessary prerequisites for an effective outcome of training. And in this attitudinal realm the duration of the sojourn plays an important role, since it sets limits upon the chances that such effects will occur.

One can sketch in an impressionistic way several characteristics relating to the duration of university programs and observation or group tours which are especially pertinent to the shaping of attitudes or values. University training, for example, being invariably much longer is also less forced in pace, and personal contacts between the visitor and nationals of his training country (mainly Americans) are likely to be freer and thus ultimately more influential in establishing attitudes toward their nation and friendly or productive personal ties. By comparison an observation tour, while perhaps more flexible as a program type from an administrative standpoint, runs a greater risk of superficial treatment of the subject of training, and may also engender in its participants a somewhat corrosive set of irritations resulting from having to cope with the annoyances that go with a great deal of travel in a brief time span.

And even if exhilarating, the net effect may not be long-lasting. Personal contacts of a social or professional character are more likely to be rather formal or even ritualistic: time pressures and the touring trainees' status as "visiting firemen" are factors making for fewer and less mutually productive encounters. We will review some data relating to these assumptions shortly; here we use them to illustrate a few potentially significant implications of a program's duration, among the most important of which is the greater leverage for changes in attitudes that longer programs would seem to afford.

The measure of a program's duration was derived from answers to questions about the total time each trainee spent abroad. Thus it includes the time he spent in orientation sessions or other special features of his program experience, in addition to the main substantive part. But the structure of the training program was the controlling element in its overall length, and all of the correlates of the major structural types analyzed previously are of necessity related to the duration of training. For example, those who went on observation or group tours more frequently--older, or more experienced, or high status trainees; those sponsored by or trained in less heavily professionalized fields of labor or private industry; those sent to Asian training sites--had programs of briefer duration. Conversely, those sent relatively more often on university programs--the youngest and least experienced trainees; those in professional capacities or in fields such as education, health or atomic energy; those who came to the U. S. (or Lebanon) for training--went on longer programs on the average. The sharpest contrast is, as expected, between those who went solely on an observation or group tour and those sent for other types of training, especially university studies: the median program duration for the former was about one-third as long as the median length of nine months for all participants (Table 4.18).

In sum, the participants were about equally divided into three groups: those sent on programs which lasted less than six months (33%), between six and twelve months (32%), and those whose programs took one year or longer to complete (34%). At one extreme only 3 per cent were in training longer than two years, while at the other only 9 per cent spent less than two months abroad as a participant.

TABLE 4.18.--DURATION OF TRAINING OF THE MAIN TYPES OF PROGRAMS: MEDIANS AND PROPORTIONS

Typology of Programs[a]	Median (Months)	Duration of Training (In Percentages)			Total Number (=100%)
		Up to 6 Mos.	6 to 12 Mos.	Over 12 Mos.	
University only	16.9	13	19	68[b]	(2143)
University and OJT	13.8	5	38	57	(1144)
University, OJT and observation	11.8	10	41	49	(2663)
University and observation	11.6	22	31	47	(3961)
OJT and observation	9.1	25	49	26	(2580)
OJT only	9.1	32	44	24	(1650)
Observation only	3.3	77[c]	20	3	(4140)
Special (nonuniversity) group only	3.1	77[c]	14	9	(578)
Total	9.1	33	32	34	(18859)

[a] See Table 4.13 for definitions of categories; numbers in each type omit those who were N.A. on duration of training.

[b] Just over 12% spent two or more years abroad.

[c] Just over 63% spent less than four months abroad.

Evaluations of length.--Of all the many specific aspects of training they evaluated, participants expressed the greatest dissatisfaction over its length. Less than half (47%) thought it had been "about right" in length, and of the rest almost all (92%) thought it had been "too short." More refined analysis showed that this was a general reaction among trainees; with the sole exception of those who had spent three or more years in training an approximately equal proportion were dissatisfied with the length of their training program, whether it had actually lasted two months, twelve months or two years (Table 4.19).

TABLE 4.19.--DISSATISFACTION WITH LENGTH OF TRAINING BY ACTUAL DURATION OF PROGRAM

Actual Duration	Per Cent Dissatisfied	Total (N)[a]
Less than 2 months	57	(1481)
2 up to 4 months	52	(3030)
4 up to 6 months	52	(1714)
6 up to 12 months	53	(5998)
12 up to 23 months	52	(5907)
24 up to 35 months	50	(404)
36 months and over	17	(174)
Total	53	(18808)

[a] Excludes N.A. on actual duration of training or dissatisfaction with its length (N=217).

Moreover, when one examines their stated preferences in the light of the actual length of their training programs, the resulting pattern can be fairly succinctly expressed: the more they got the more they wanted. If one exempts those whose programs were of less than four months' duration (most of whom tended to want only a few additional months) probably the best inference to be drawn is that the likelihood of earning a degree is the main, although not the sole underlying cause for the uniform occurrence of the demand for more. Comparisons among those whose programs had been of a substantial duration show that they expressed desires for ever longer periods of training, amounts which would have put the earning of a degree well within the limits of the attainable. Earlier we noted that the longer the period of training the more likely was the program to have been situated at a university, the locale where the hope of gaining a degree while in training is most readily acquired (or fanned, if already held) by a participant. And since more than two-thirds of all who thought their training had been "too short" sought a program of one year or more in length, one can conclude that a good deal of their dissatisfaction springs from disappointment over foregone chances of earning a degree, the most tangible if not valuable by-product of an overseas sojourn. The few (4.3% of total) whose training was "too long" are of course expressing another, perhaps more damning form of criticism (Table 4.20).

TABLE 4.20.--DESIRED LENGTH OF TRAINING PROGRAM BY THE ACTUAL DURATION OF TRAINING (OF THOSE DISSATISFIED)
(In Percentages)

Desired Length of Training	Actual Duration of Training Less Than 2 Mos.	2 to 4 Mos.	4 to 6 Mos.	6 to 12 Mos.	More Than 12 Mos.
Less than 2 months	24	5	2	1	-[a]
Two to 4 months	56	16	8	3	1
Four to 6 months	6	18	6	2	-[a]
Six to 12 months	10	45	43	13	4
More than 12 months	4	16	41	81[b]	94[c]
Total[d] %	100	100	100	100	100
(N)	(811)	(1565)	(888)	(3210)	(3329)

[a] Less than .5%.

[b] Of all in this category 71% wanted one full year of additional training; the rest wanted still more.

[c] Of all in this category 81% wanted one year more of training than they had gotten: if one, they wanted a second, and if two, they wanted a third; the rest wanted still more.

[d] Excludes those who were N.A. on desired length.

The duration of training is the last of the formal dimensions of participant training programs that we outlined at the beginning of this chapter. In the next chapter we will review the trainees' evaluations of specific aspects of their experience, and in particular the "nontechnical" ones which relate most directly to their personal situation during the sojourn. The duration of training was quite often an important factor in these evaluations.

V. THE TRAINING SOJOURN: SOME EVALUATIVE PERSPECTIVES

Introduction

The objectives which have emerged in the evolution of participant training as a U. S. assistance program can be roughly classified into two groups, usually termed "technical" and "nontechnical." The former has to do with the primarily cognitive issue of the effective transfer of technical skills and knowledge to a participant for occupational use after he returns home; related to this goal are those substantive aspects of a training program--its type, variety and duration--which bear most directly upon its quality. By comparison, the nontechnical aspects and objectives are more diffusely interrelated, having mainly to do with the links between events or activities and a participant's psychological responses. Thus they include the logistic or administrative aspects of a program that can facilitate or hinder the learning process, and affect a trainee's in-training motivation or social adjustment. Then there are the various ancillary aspects of a training experience--home visits, social or cultural activities, special events--which can enlarge his understanding of U. S. social institutions and help to build or deepen a participant's commitment to his role in national development tasks.[1]

The survey contained few items which dealt even indirectly with the achievement of the more diffuse nontechnical objectives. The study's primary emphasis upon the nature of training and its uses led to the inclusion of questions which dealt only with those nontechnical aspects most closely related to the occupational goals of training. The evaluative judgments of participants about these aspects of training, both specific and general in nature, form a sort of "consumer's perspective" on the experiences of their sojourn; we have presented some in earlier chapters. As a second source of data, independent of but comparable to reactions of former trainees, their work supervisors were asked (whenever feasible) to express their views about the training their subordinates received. A third perspective is provided by the views elicited from a smaller number of ICA/AID overseas officials who were in a position to assess the outcome of training of individual participants. While all three kinds of evaluative data will be used, the principal sources of information in this chapter as elsewhere are the participants themselves.

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[1] Most trainees, it will be recalled, spent all or a good deal of their sojourn in the United States.

Some Technical Aspects of Training

Variety and Level

Participants' evaluations of one major substantive aspect--the duration of training--have already been reviewed. A second one, the type of training, was approached indirectly in the survey. Participants were asked if they felt they had been "required to do or see too many different things." Behind this question about what might be termed the variety of training was a concern over the focus and pace of certain types of training, in particular the observation or group tour. Was too much variety introduced, or too little, into the programming of training? Just over half (51%) were satisfied with this aspect of their training, 30 per cent would have preferred still more activities, while 19 per cent felt they had seen and done too much.

This ratio of approximately 5:3:2 showed very little variation from one subgroup of participants to another. There was one partial and understandable exception: participants sent solely on observation or group tours (the briefest type of program) complained slightly more often of an excess of activities. But while the variety included in their programs stood second only to its duration in evoking trainees' disapproval, little of consequence flowed from this fact. Those who disapproved in either direction were only marginally less satisfied with the general value of training, and made only slightly less extensive use of it upon their return than the group who thought their program's variety was all right.

Perhaps because of the ambiguity in the terms of the question there are hints in the data that the participants' views about this aspect of training were colored more by their reactions to the nontechnical than the substantive side of their program. One is left with an impression of some trainees who had a bit too much time on their hands and some who underwent training at too forced a pace, but in neither case did this lead to serious consequences.

The level of training which foreign students and trainees encounter in international programs has often been seen as a source of personal difficulty and institutional concern. In part, difficulties with this aspect of training spring from the processes of selection and the quality of prior preparation of students or trainees. But there is also a strategic issue: the claim is sometimes made that training in advanced or developed countries is inevitably conducted at too advanced a level, given the limited resources and types of organizations available to the student upon his return. In this sense, the level of training can be judged more or less appropriate mainly in terms of its fit with the work context of the returned student, rather than in terms of his personal qualities alone.

Participants were asked how they found the level of their program, and almost four in five (79%) felt it had been "about right." Of the rest, 14 per cent thought training had been conducted at "too simple" a level, and 6 per cent felt it had been "too advanced" for them. Differences among trainee groups in these proportions are relatively minor, but instructive. For example, those trained at a few third country sites, notably in Puerto Rico or other offshore U. S. sites, were appreciably more critical of the level of their training (claiming it was too simple) than were those trained in the U. S., Lebanon or Japan. And those in training for the longest periods of time (three or more years) were the most satisfied (93%) with the level at which training was conducted, leading one to infer that judgments about this discrete aspect were affected by a program's locale (university) and consequences (i.e., gaining a degree) as well as by its quality. But the relationships are rendered unclear because of the very large number who felt training was satisfactory in this respect.

Parenthetically it can be noted that only 38 per cent of the participants had been told anything about the level of their program before they left for training. Those who had received any information tended less often to say that training was "too simple"; in addition, three-quarters of those who hadn't been oriented in advance would have found it helpful, if they had. Since the level of training would be difficult to specify in advance with any precision, and since responses to training are made in terms of each trainee's individual frame of reference, little possibility of improvement on this score suggests itself.

Technical Aspects: An Index of Satisfaction

Participants' views about each of the main substantive aspects of training--duration, variety and level--reflect a fair amount of discontent. In order to determine whether their evaluations show any underlying pattern, or reflect common influences, an index was constructed which summarized the number of satisfied judgments each trainee made. The resulting combinations of answers, and the proportions of participants who gave them are shown below. For simplicity, we have combined these logically possible combinations of answers to form an index with three groups of participants, making the following assumption: the fewer the number of items rated as satisfactory, the less satisfied was each trainee with the technical side of his program (Table 5.1).

TABLE 5.1.--SATISFACTION WITH TECHNICAL ASPECTS OF TRAINING: AN INDEX

Number of Technical Aspects Rated "Satisfactory"	Participants	
	Number	Per Cent
Three: level, variety and duration	5050	26.5
Two: level and variety	3189	16.8
Two: level and duration	2381	12.5
Two: variety and duration	733	3.8
One: level only	4411	23.2
One: duration only	816	4.3
One: variety only	687	3.6
None of the three	1758	9.2
Total	19025	99.9

Index of Satisfaction: Technical Aspects	Per Cent
HIGH (all three rated satisfactory)	26.5
MODERATE (any two rated satisfactory)	33.1
LOW (one or none rated satisfactory)	40.3

Since only half of the trainees rated the duration and the variety of their training as satisfactory, it is inevitable that a large proportion of trainees are classified as low by this measure. No absolute significance should be attached to these proportions; the major value of the index is that it allows one to make further analytical comparisons in an economical way.

Guided by variations in the proportions who were HIGH and LOW, intensive analysis of trainee groups revealed several sets of factors that were associated with participants' evaluations. First, certain attributes of trainees at selection were linked with contrasting views of the quality of their technical training: those under 30 or over 55, for example, tended to be less satisfied as did those with lesser amounts of work experience in their specialty fields and those who had already taken some vocationally-related training. But the most striking contrasts occurred when the participants of different occupational status were compared. Judgments about the technical aspects of training were far less favorable among technicians and lower level trainees than among managers and professionals of various types, while the top status groups were by far the most often satisfied (Table 5.2). This finding is substantially unaffected by differences in the character of training given to various status groups, since a wide range of program types are represented within each group. The groups whose evaluations are most at variance with others are the lower level technicians, supervisors and workers: their training programs were not particularly successful from a substantive point of view. (But they were among the most positive in their general appraisal of the training experience: they appreciated going on a training program more highly than they rated its quality.)

TABLE 5.2.--INDEX OF SATISFACTION WITH TECHNICAL ASPECTS OF TRAINING BY OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF PARTICIPANTS AT SELECTION

Occupational Status at Selection	Index of Satisfaction (In Percentages)			Total[a] Number (=100%)
	High	Moderate	Low	
Top and secondary policy makers, executives	34	31	35	(1452)
Managers, administrative officials	28	33	39	(5461)
Professions: scientists, engineers, teachers	25	34	41	(8683)
Subprofessions, technicians	22	32	46	(1710)
Foremen, craftsmen, and workers	20	31	49	(1187)

[a] Excludes students and N.A. (N=532).

A second set of correlates of participants' assessments of the technical aspects of training had to do with the quality of their preparation for it. The more comprehensive the scope of their orientation, or the more involved they were in program planning, the more favorable were the participants' judgments. These data are particularly interesting in view of the fact that such preparatory activities are well within the sphere of administrative competence of the U. S. Missions. Improvements in programming--getting trainees more deeply involved--and more attention to the informational needs of participants prior to training would seem to be highly valuable influences upon their reception of technical training (Table 5.3A, B).

TABLE 5.3.--INDEX OF SATISFACTION WITH TECHNICAL ASPECTS OF TRAINING BY (A) SCOPE OF ORIENTATION ON SUBSTANCE AND (B) PARTICIPANT'S ROLE IN PROGRAMMING PRIOR TO TRAINING

Evaluation of Predeparture Feature[a]	Index of Satisfaction (In Percentages)			Total Number (=100%)
	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Scope of Orientation on Substance				
Five main items covered adequately	32	34	40	(8082)
Three or four main items covered adequately	23	33	44	(7902)
Two or fewer main items covered adequately	21	31	48	(3012)
B. Role in Prior Programming				
Involved satisfactorily	33	33	34	(5733)
Involved: wanted greater role	19	34	47	(1407)
Not involved at all	25	33	42	(11832)

[a] In both items, those who were N.A. are excluded. The items were more fully defined in Chapter III.

A third set of correlates of participants' judgments on the technical aspects of their programs had to do with the nature of training and its locale. Interestingly, no clear relation existed between the specific types of programs that participants encountered and their level of satisfaction. But the longer a program lasted the more often it led to a degree, and this had a decided impact upon appraisals of the technical side of training. Degree recipients viewed all three elements of training in a more favorable light than anybody else, and the most relatively deprived group --university-trained participants who went home empty-handed--showed least approval (Table 5.4A).

TABLE 5.4.--INDEX OF SATISFACTION WITH TECHNICAL ASPECTS OF TRAINING BY (A) PLACE OF TRAINING (DEGREE), AND (B) TRAINING SITE

Program Feature[a]	Index of Satisfaction (In Percentages)			Total Number (=100%)
	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Place of Training: Result				
University: earned a degree	33	32	35	(2532)
University: awarded a certificate	25	36	39	(3022)
University: got nothing	20	36	44	(3472)
Not at a university	28	31	41	(9953)
B. Training Site				
Mainland U. S.	27	34	39	(15769)
Lebanon	29	31	40	(659)
Japan, Philippines	26	28	46	(755)
Other third country sites	25	30	45	(1214)
Offshore U. S.	20	27	53	(500)
China (Taiwan)	19	26	55	(95)

[a] In both items, those who were N.A. are excluded.

Finally, certain third country sites are associated with a lower level of approval of the technical training given there. (These judgments are quite independent of how satisfied trainees were with the nontechnical aspects of training in those countries, as we will show in the next section.) Programs conducted at offshore U. S. sites, excluding the special case of Lebanon, were less often judged in as favorable terms as those held on the U. S. mainland (Table 5.4B). In part this follows the pattern of findings relating to the duration of training: sites at which programs tended to be brief were given lower ratings on these technical aspects. But other factors may also be implicated, such as poorer local administration, or the less selective use of some sites of marginal quality in order to bypass language difficulties, without providing any additional facilities to assure proper training. These data are too crude to test such hypotheses, and the findings will have to remain unspecified.

The great complexity and diverse character of technical training make it extremely hazardous to draw any general conclusions. While substantial numbers of participants held reservations of various kinds about the details of their training, the main common grounds for criticisms that were discovered were: gaps which could be traced back to their preparation for training, and shortcomings in training that seem to flow most directly from the time available to the participant relative to the time span he _felt_ was necessary or desirable. The former source of difficulty is more amenable to alteration by administrative action than the latter. We will encounter this mixture of subjective and objective factors in every other evaluative context; technical training as a form of assistance is judged both by what it is and by how it appears through the lenses of individual preference.

Some Nontechnical Aspects of Training

Participants were questioned about many aspects of their sojourn other than its technical part; we have touched on some in earlier sections. Here we will focus on three items in particular: the trainees' opinions about the money made available to them, the free time left for pursuing their own interests, and the social activities that had been arranged for them. Evaluations of these program features can be expected to vary with the locale and demands of the technical part of training, since the latter set limits upon the available time and facilities for such nontechnical pursuits. But more fundamentally, answers about these topics can serve as diagnostic indicators of a trainee's _personal or social adjustment_. Any serious problems or difficulties (for example, loneliness or unfulfilled expectations of various types) that they encountered during the sojourn would stretch across or be linked with one or more of these aspects. The data on other nontechnical features, such as home visits or special communications seminars will be treated more summarily.

Money

Data on the funds actually allotted to participants by ICA/AID for travel and living costs were not recorded; the amounts have in any case varied over the years and with the types of programs. In the absence of such information we cannot relate the opinions of the trainees about money to the amounts actually made available to them, as we did in analyzing the duration of training. The main common denominator in the participants' evaluations is each person's sense of how much was necessary or adequate for him, an opinion that is quite likely to be colored both by the program circumstances he confronted and his personal status, with its associated expectations of what is appropriate.

For most, money did not seem to have posed serious problems. Seven out of ten rated their allotted funds as sufficient, 29 per cent thought them inadequate, and only one per cent judged them excessive. And as expected, personal status was an important influence upon evaluations. The older the participant the more frequently were complaints about money registered in the interview, not only because of the heavier demands that more senior participants face, but also as a result of correlative differences in their occupational status (levels) at selection. The group of national policy makers and executives was critical more often than anybody; conversely, the youthful and usually inexperienced student group was most satisfied of all: 60 per cent of the top status group and 80 per cent of the students were satisfied with the money they got (vs. 72% of all other status groups).

The reasons the critical participants gave for their unfavorable evaluations only reinforced the results of this analysis of their personal and program attributes. Both sets of data reflect subjective and objective factors: criticism because of an enforced drop in their customary living standards (due partly to the unexpectedly high costs of living in the U. S.), and because of the expenses incurred for travel and hotels by those who had observation tours. Some trainees claimed they had to dip into personal funds to complete their training while maintaining themselves adequately. These perceived shortcomings are heavily influenced by what they expected, or considered as acceptable: trainees whose residence (e.g., rural areas), occupations and educational backgrounds reflected a more modest position in the social structure of their country were usually contented more often than were their more highly placed or more cosmopolitan colleagues in training. But at every level more were satisfied than not, and no serious consequences of a critical opinion were observed: those who were dissatisfied about money differed little from others in their general appraisals of the training experience, and in the uses they made of it upon their return home.

Free Time and Social Activities

Evaluations of these two closely interrelated aspects of programs revealed somewhat more disgruntlement among participants. While 58 per cent were satisfied with the time they had free to pursue their personal interests, 39 per cent felt they'd had too little time; only two per cent found free time to be in excess of their desires. As with evaluations of money, age and occupational status affected trainees' judgments: those who were older or more highly placed were more critical. But certain program characteristics were more strongly correlated than these trainee attributes. Among those sent to Far Eastern (third country) sites (where programs were typically brief) and especially among those sent on sojourns of less than two months (mostly observation or group tours) the proportions critical about their free time rise to or exceed one half. It was not so much the brevity of such programs as their heavily scheduled pace which gave rise to this complaint. But as with the topic of money, criticisms of programs in this respect did not affect trainees' general appraisals and uses of training subsequently, with one slight exception. The small group who felt they'd had too much time on their hands made appreciably less extensive use of their training. An excess of free time would seem to reflect rather clearly the fact that a trainee's program was poorly planned and executed, or beneath his level; in either case it represents a serious failure in programming.

In order to make sure that trainees are exposed fairly widely to the society and culture of the training country (especially when it is the United States) program managers try to arrange for their participation in social and cultural affairs, professional meetings and personal encounters of various sorts. The response to these arranged social activities was generally favorable: 71 per cent of the participants felt they had done enough, and most of the rest (all but 3%) wished for still more of these kinds of activities on their schedules. There was no consensus among the critics as to which kinds of activities occurred too infrequently or too often. Nor were there any clear-cut bases for distinguishing the critics from those who were satisfied, or any sizable consequences of dissatisfaction.

What seems to be involved in complaints such as these is an underlying sense of having been clamped into programs that were too monotonous or too narrowly conceived, lacking sufficient flexibility or diversions. The lack of any serious consequences of perceived shortcomings of these types would seem to lend strength to the view that the nontechnical side of training does not materially affect the successful achievement of the occupational (technical) objectives of the program, a point to which we will return.

Nontechnical Aspects: An Index of Satisfaction

These three items were used to construct an index of satisfaction with the nontechnical part of a trainee's program. As with the index used in the previous section, the participants were categorized in terms of the number and combinations of favorable judgments they made: the more they gave, the more satisfied they were assumed to be. Put somewhat differently, the fewer the satisfied answers they gave the poorer their personal or social adjustment during the sojourn was likely to have been. The resulting distribution of trainees on this index and their classification into three groups is shown below. Again, no absolute significance should be attached to the magnitude of these proportions; the main value of the index lies in its usefulness in the search for common influences underlying the trainees' judgments (Table 5.5).

TABLE 5.5.--SATISFACTION WITH NONTECHNICAL ASPECTS OF TRAINING: AN INDEX

Number of Nontechnical Aspects Rated "Satisfactory"	Participants	
	Number	Per Cent
Three: social activities, money, free time	6433	33.8
Two: social activities and money	3432	18.0
Two: social activities and free time	2037	10.7
Two: money and free time	1652	8.6
One: money only	1762	9.3
One: social activities only	1560	8.2
One: free time only	928	4.9
None of the three	1221	6.4
Total	19025	99.9

Index of Satisfaction: Nontechnical Aspects	Per Cent
HIGH (all three rated satisfactory)	33.8
MODERATE (any two rated satisfactory)	37.3
LOW (one or none rated satisfactory)	28.8

Among the factors correlated with the relative levels of satisfaction of trainee groups were certain of their personal attributes.[1] There is a substantial and inverse correlation between their age and years of specialty experience prior to training and satisfaction with "extracurricular" aspects of their program. These relationships are bound up with a participant's social status, with its set of expectations and obligations; closely related to this factor are findings that unmarried trainees, female participants, and those without previous higher (university) education all tended to be far less critical than their counterparts. The more modest needs or initial expectations of these categories of participants may have led to a relatively more appreciative response (Table 5.6A-E).

TABLE 5.6.--INDEX OF SATISFACTION WITH NONTECHNICAL ASPECTS OF TRAINING BY SELECTED ATTRIBUTES OF PARTICIPANTS AT SELECTION
(In Percentages)

Status Attribute[a]	Index of Satisfaction (In Percentages)			Total Number (=100%)
	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Age				
50 and over	29	36	35	(1163)
30-49	31	39	30	(12577)
29 and under	41	36	23	(5068)
B. Sex				
Men	33	37	30	(16894)
Women	38	39	23	(2123)
C. Marital Status				
Married	32	38	30	(13851)
Single	39	36	25	(5038)
D. Work Experience in Specialty				
Ten or more years	31	38	31	(7019)
Two up to ten years	34	38	28	(8811)
Up to two years	37	37	26	(2244)
None	43	36	21	(537)
E. Higher Education: Locale				
University abroad	30	38	32	(2204)
University at home	32	38	30	(11647)
No university attendance	40	36	24	(5061)

[a] Those who were N.A. on each attribute are excluded.

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[1] As in the previous section, we use the proportions HIGH and LOW in each trainee group as a primary indicator of relative satisfaction, here related to the nontechnical part of training.

The occupational status of the participants, a significant factor in many evaluations, is important here as well. But the relationship between it and trainees' relative satisfaction is more variable: the most satisfied were the students and lower-level employed participants, while the higher-level status groups tended to be irregularly less favorable in their expressed judgments. This is almost exactly the reverse of the findings noted earlier on evaluation of the technical side of training, and demonstrates the independence of the trainees' views of these two aspects of their training programs[1] (Table 5.7).

TABLE 5.7.--INDEX OF SATISFACTION WITH NONTECHNICAL ASPECTS OF TRAINING BY OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF PARTICIPANTS (AT SELECTION)

Occupational Status at Selection[a]	Index of Satisfaction (In Percentages)			Total Number (=100%)
	High	Moderate	Low	
Top level policy makers, executives	32	26	42	(132)
Secondary executives; managers, administrative officials	31	39	30	(6782)
Engineers	29	36	35	(2057)
Professionals: scientists, teachers	34	39	27	(6626)
Subprofessionals, technicians; workers	37	37	26	(2059)
Foremen; artisans and craftsmen	42	35	23	(738)
Students, inactive	51	30	19	(342)

[a] Some categories of participants have been combined with others, whose index proportions were identical, leading to status-level groupings more heterogeneous than were used in previous tables.

From these interrelated sets of findings we can infer that the more settled and senior the status of a participant, or the more seasoned by experience or cosmopolitan in outlook he was, the more selectively critical were his evaluations of the adequacy of the nontechnical facets of his program. The challenge this poses to a program planner is to incorporate these significant status differences in developing more flexible training programs, to avoid an approach which treats the selectees in too monolithic a fashion from the standpoint of what they will expect in the way of amenities and activities arranged for them.

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[1] The concordance of participants' classifications on both indexes of satisfaction is moderately strong, but there are a substantial number of "deviant" cases--trainees who were HIGH on one and LOW on the other. Only 39% were either satisfied or dissatisfied with five or all six of the items that constituted the bases for the two indexes: 33% approved of five or all six, while 6% approved of only one or none.

Several dimensions of the trainees' programs were correlated with their levels of satisfaction, in particular the site and duration of training. Excepting only the Far Eastern sites, training in third countries tended to be more agreeably received than in the U. S. The reasons for this pattern of findings are complex. In part the higher living costs of a sojourn in the U. S. affected their evaluations, and many who went to the U. S. on briefer stays may also have found it more difficult to adjust their expectations to the available time and facilities than did those sent elsewhere. The presumably closer "cultural affinity" of sites such as Puerto Rico (for Latin American participants) and Lebanon (for Middle Eastern and South Asian university trainees) with their own country may also have led to more favorable evaluations by those trained there. Language problems were likely to have been minimized at third country sites (Table 5.8A).

TABLE 5.8.--INDEX OF SATISFACTION WITH NONTECHNICAL ASPECTS OF TRAINING BY THE SITE AND DURATION OF TRAINING

Program Dimension[a]	Index of Satisfaction (In Percentages)			Total Number (=100%)
	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Primary Training Site				
Puerto Rico	52	34	14	(356)
Other offshore U. S. site	51	39	10	(144)
Lebanon	48	31	21	(659)
Other third country sites	36	35	29	(1214)
Mainland U. S.	33	38	29	(15769)
Japan, Philippines or Taiwan	27	43	30	(851)
B. Duration of Training				
Three or more years	53	28	19	(177)
One to three years	37	38	25	(6351)
Two months to one year	33	37	30	(10829)
Less than two months	27	36	37	(1502)

[a] Those N.A. on either item were excluded.

By this line of reasoning one can conclude that the often-professed advantages of third-country training find empirical support in these findings: complaints about matters apart from the technical substance of the training programs are reduced in volume. But this greater contentment can be purchased at the price of poorer technical training: the trainees' evaluations as indexed in the previous section show almost the reverse ranking of these sites with respect to their program's substantive adequacy. Here again we find evidence of the substantial variability in the evaluations by participants of the two sides of training programs, technical and nontechnical.

Duration and type of training are correlated with the participants' evaluations of nontechnical aspects. The findings with respect to a program's length are clear-cut: the longer it was the more satisfied were the trainees on these counts. (Indeed, on almost every measure of satisfaction with training used in the study--with its technical and nontechnical aspects, its career impact, its general value, etc.--the longer the program's duration the higher the proportion of satisfied trainees. It is one of the very few correlates of participant reactions to training which produced so consistent a pattern of findings.) The length of a program was closely associated with other facets, such as the chances of gaining a degree, or at the other extreme, of being sent on an observation tour, and so on. But these latter program dimensions are more diversely correlated with levels of trainee satisfaction. Having earned a degree did not materially improve the recipients' evaluations compared, for example, with those who also took university studies of one type or another but got nothing at its end. University-trained participants as a group were inclined to view the nontechnical side of training more favorably than those who went solely on observation tours; as we noted earlier, problems of money and status-based expectations are posed most acutely for this latter class of trainees. But the mix of program types which characterized the training of a majority of participants clouded these relationships, especially when compared with the finding on the duration of training (Table 5.8B).

In sum, a trainee's judgments of nontechnical aspects of his sojourn are heavily colored by his personal status, the scope of his program (in type and length), and its sociocultural setting. If we assume that this set of evaluations indirectly reflects the participants' reactions to the program as a personal experience rather than as a vocational learning episode, we find sharply critical views of one aspect can go hand in hand with favorable judgments of the other. Generally, the nontechnical aspects were viewed in favorable terms more often than the technical ones, and the consequences of having experienced this class of disappointments (for example too little money or free time) do not seem to have been numerous or serious. The relative unimportance of this nontechnical dimension of training is a subject to which we will return, after taking up a few more of its facets.

Home Visits

In the field of international educational and cultural exchange one activity that has found near-universal favor is the home visit or, in its more prolonged version, the homestay. Direct personal contact in the relaxed and informal atmosphere of private homes is pointed to not only as an effective way of altering or clarifying stereotyped views or misinformation but also of generating social or personal bonds that can assist the visitor in orienting himself to his new situation, and can serve as a long-term source of support in his later development efforts.

Five out of six trainees (84%) had been entertained at some point in their sojourn in a private home, a proportion which has shown little variation over the years or among diverse trainee groups, with one clear exception--the site at which training was taken. Participants trained in the U. S. were more likely by far than others to have received home hospitality: 88 per cent did so, compared with 65-70 per cent of those trained at offshore U. S. sites (Puerto Rico, etc.) or in the Far East, and 50-60 per cent of those trained in Lebanon or other third country sites. Clearly a special effort has been made in the case of U. S.-trained participants; aided in great measure by the existence of private voluntary organizations interested in world affairs, such as COSERV or its predecessors, program administrators have been able to promote such personal contacts more effectively here than elsewhere. The lack of cooperating private organizations, differing cultural norms regulating the offer of hospitality to foreigners, and the brevity of most programs at some third country sites are some of the limiting conditions upon the frequency of home visiting by trainees at non-U. S. sites. The greater concern to achieve nontechnical objectives of a broader political or cultural nature that may animate managers of U. S. training programs probably has played a contributory role as well.

Almost all who went on such visits enjoyed them, most of whom liked them "very much." The evident usefulness of such personal experiences is revealed by the main reasons they gave for their favorable views: the friendly welcome and warmth which they encountered (54%); the chance such visits offered them to learn about their training country at first hand (45%)--rather than by reading or lectures; the opportunity to give information to others about their own land (16%); and the more relaxed and informal atmosphere of such visits (10%)--presumably in contrast to the rest of the training sojourn. One can question the view that these kinds of cross-national exposures have self-evident value in affecting deeper sentiments; one's established predispositions tend to be a more enduring shaper of beliefs than the warm glow generated by a pleasant evening or two. But as a leavening element in an otherwise tightly regulated or demanding training program, it can (and did) come as an particularly appealing interlude, and if "consumer satisfaction" is taken as a reasonably reliable guide to future planning home visits ought to be vigorously supported as a component of training.

Seminar on Communications

Beginning in 1958, and increasingly since then numbers of participants trained in the U. S. have attended a specialized seminar in the problems of communicating and using their new skills and knowledge in the context of their own countries and work milieus. The main focus of these week-long group discussions is the problem of how to be more effective in introducing and bringing about changes and improvements, one which is common to trainees in all fields. In part, these seminars are designed to make the participants more sensitive to their organizational and social environment, to instruct them in techniques for the analysis of situations which may confront them upon their return home, and how best to handle them. Since these seminars are usually conducted at the end of training in special conference centers, and include participants from many countries and specialty fields, they can serve as a kind of "decompression chamber," enabling them to take stock of the whole experience at its conclusion, and compare notes with a broader spectrum of foreign nationals than may have been available to them at their training institution.

Relatively few among our samples of returned participants had attended a seminar of this sort: over-all, only 18 per cent had, although of those in the most recent (and relevant) period of departure (1959-1961) almost 30 per cent went to a seminar. Almost all of these were held in the U. S., mainly under the guidance of Michigan State University, or the U. S. Department of Agriculture (for participants whose programs it managed); a few other places or auspices were also mentioned. A program lasting longer than four months appeared to be a prerequisite for attendance at such a seminar.

Those who went to a seminar generally praised it as an experience, stressing one or more of four attractions it had for them: learning how to communicate effectively with others; exchanging ideas with people from other countries; hearing suggestions on adapting training to their own countries; and encountering the skills and experience of particular teachers. Only 7 per cent were distinctly critical, saying they found nothing to like about the seminar. Other perceived drawbacks mentioned by some were scattered and balanced in nature, some saying it was too short or too long, too intensive or superficial, and so on.

Seventy-one per cent of those who attended said they had made some subsequent use of the principles or ideas to which they had been exposed, mostly in instructing others, or in "human relations" problems arising from attempts to institute changes. Of the remaining 29 per cent, a quarter simply rejected the entire experience as useless or not adding to their fund of knowledge; the rest indicated that they had not yet found opportunities to use anything, because of the character of their then-current jobs, or (for a few) because of administrative or procedural (i.e., bureaucratic) difficulties.[1]

In sum, as with home visits the evaluations given by those who had been exposed to this special feature were generally quite favorable. From a "consumer's perspective," the worth of the seminar seems to be supported: less than 10 per cent found serious fault with the seminar concept, and a healthy majority mentioned some use to which they put an idea or principle or set of materials derived from it. But there is some question apart from these "testimonials" as to how effective such training is. For example, attendance at the seminar is not correlated with more extensive use of training upon their return home, as measured empirically by how much they had used and transmitted their technical training. Nor is it associated with a more favorable general evaluation of the entire training experience. Those who had attended were not different from those who had not on both of these key measures of the output of the program. Nor were these two groups evaluated differently by their work supervisors with respect to how well they had conveyed their training to others.

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[1] These seemingly neutral comments could also be seen as signs that the seminar had not been successful, since its main purpose is instruction in how to introduce innovation, surmount organizational barriers and be generally more effective, whatever the specific work situation.

By all these indirect and long-range criterion measures the seminar had no discernible impact, none that would tend to corroborate the trainees' own favorable judgments.

Occasionally, people closely associated with international exchange programs have proposed that a moratorium should be routinely provided at the end of the sojourn, to allow the foreign visitor to sort out his impressions, to gain a broader perspective on the tasks awaiting him and on the development process. This period of time for reflection can serve to prepare the participant to "reenter" his own society and adjust without, however, losing the momentum that his training may have built up. If such complex and subtle benefits are realized to any considerable degree, then the lack of evidence that the seminar has had any long-term occupational significance is less fateful to an assessment of its relative costs and benefits. (We know of no data or established methodology for making such an assessment in any case.) Further research on the actual and hoped-for results of such special training would seem to be called for, based on these admittedly sketchy findings.[1]

From all available evidence it appears that the prior social status of trainees and the site (country) of training are the primary sources of variation in expressed opinions about nontechnical aspects. Relatively few seemed seriously concerned over some gaps in this side of their program, and few consequences flowed from such discontent. There is an irreducible minimum level of social or personal problems connected with any transitory experience such as this, with a need to communicate in an alien language, or in general having to cope with the role of "stranger" in a country whose social patterns are often profoundly different from one's own. From an administrative standpoint, if one has taken steps to ease the path to a successful learning experience, to counter the shocks of cultural or personal dislocation, one can then ask: How crucial are these nontechnical aspects to the achievement of the vocational objectives of participant training? Can one realistically expect to go beyond a goodly proportion of trainees who have had a deeply satisfying personal experience as a goal, to expect rather that all must have it? What difference does it make if they do? We will return to this issue in the chapter on the utilization of training.

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[1] A symposium held in 1962 was directed at the exploration of some of these matters. See: "Human Factors in Cross-Cultural Adjustment," Journal of Social Issues, Vol. XIX, No. 3 (July 1963), especially the research articles by Kelman and by Deutsch and Won, and the programmatic discussions of Lundstedt and Jacobson.

General Evaluations by Participants

Because it was recognized that in personal interviews the participants might tend to be more reserved in expressing any negative sentiments about training (lest they be seen as ungrateful, or feeling dubious about the confidentiality of their answers, or for other reasons) the survey schedule contained an assortment of items which sought to elicit opinions and attitudes in various ways. They were asked about specific details of their programs and also to give more summary or general evaluations. Some questions were to be answered by a choice among alternatives, while others permitted complete freedom to the respondent. For example, they were asked what they felt to be the most and least useful parts of their experience, and also to offer suggestions for changes in their training programs. Any freely given answers to such unstructured probes would presumably more clearly reflect aspects of their own programs that they felt to be inadequate than responses to a check list of items.

In this section we will review these data, taking them in their ensemble as representing the best available measures of personal reactions to the experience of having been a participant. Other items of information bearing upon the worth of training will also be mentioned. Such sentiments form one of the two main classes of results or effects of training which this evaluation survey was designed to explore. The other is of course the uses they have made of training, chiefly in some occupational setting. One can assume that participants' attitudes and activities will tend to be congruent, and that a program experience that is favorably viewed is also likely to result in higher levels of utilization. Certainly it is highly unlikely that trainees who adopt a negative tone in their evaluations of their sojourn will have made effective use of the training they took, especially when, as we will see, one basis for some trainees' critical sentiments is the irrelevance of training to their current work situation. Later on, we will test this assumed relationship with the available data.

Completion of the Program

One important criterion measure for assessing the worthwhile character of a program is whether or not a participant saw it through to completion, and the causes for the instances of attrition that occurred. To some extent a trainee can respond to an unsatisfactory experience by "voting with his feet," and failing to complete the program. By this standard participant training has enjoyed an extremely high proportion of successes: 96 per cent of the participants in our sample completed their training.[1] Earlier we saw that the programs of about 18 per cent of the trainees underwent some important change in substance or character after they had left for training. Putting these two facts together, we can infer that just over three-quarters of all trainees completed their programs substantially as they had originally been planned. Only one in twenty-five returned home earlier than scheduled.

The reasons that the early returnees gave were coded into a few categories, and these form two general classes: the "pushes" out of training that were intrinsically related to some negative aspect of it, and the "pulls" or demands upon trainees emanating from some other source. The latter class was the more frequently heard: "personal reasons" (including illness) was the most common, mentioned by 31 per cent; and another 25 per cent said they had been "recalled" by their government or employer because of a need for their services.

Only one-quarter (26%) of the early returnees gave a "push" type of reason, one that was clearly associated with some defect in their program. Mostly they found it to be "irrelevant" or "a waste of time"; only a handful mentioned lack of money in this connection. (The remainder were noncommittal about the reasons for their uncompleted training.) In sum, only one per cent of all participants failed to complete their programs because of some manifest flaw in its character, one serious enough to lead them to cut it short and go home.

Most and Least Valued Part

The participants were asked to recollect what had stood out as the "most useful and valuable part" of their sojourn, and the least valued as well. Their answers tended to be very general in nature; greater numbers alluded to some vocationally relevant (technical) facet of their program than referred to a social or cultural (nontechnical) aspect. More specifically, with respect to most valuable aspects: 34 per cent stressed the subjects they had studied, 21 per cent commented favorably about the organization or procedures and equipment that they had encountered, and 5 per cent spoke of the high quality or instructors or counterparts they had met. In all, three-quarters of the participants singled out some technical feature of their program as having been the most valuable part of the experience. Another 8 per cent mentioned some personal qualities of the people they had met--their honesty, diligence, punctuality, etc.--and 7 per cent referred to greater understanding of other people gained through their personal contacts. The rest of the comments were widely scattered, with 6 per cent saying "everything" about their sojourn had been valuable, and one per cent who claimed that "nothing" about it had any utility.

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[1] One suspects that this figure may be slightly too high: the records of those who returned home earlier than planned may have not been as readily available when the names of returned participants were listed, prior to the interviewing phase. Even so, the true rate of attrition cannot have been much greater, given the formal and informal pressures toward completion which accompany the act of being selected to go abroad, and the complex arrangements necessary to effect a withdrawal.

This concentration of evaluative remarks upon the technical side of training is again seen in their answers about the "least valuable" part of their experience abroad. First, a majority rejected the terms of the question: 57 per cent of all participants said they could not isolate any least useful part, that the program had been of value in its entirety, and another 7 per cent didn't or couldn't answer, leaving just over one third (36%) who made a critical comment on some feature of their sojourn. Four-fifths of these comments had to do with the technical side of training, mostly disappointments over a visit to some specific place, or with some university where they had studied. Only one-fifths of the freely-expressed criticisms pertained to the social or cultural parts, and these dealt mainly with certain social customs or activities; only one per cent of all participants made any explicit mention of race discrimination.

The participants' answers to this set of open-ended questions were probably overly generous or enthusiastic in tone. But despite this tendency, they seem to show a consistently greater concern with the quality and relevance of the technical side of training, compared with the rest of their experiences. Both the strengths and shortcomings that they chose as worthiest of particular mention were concentrated on that phase of the overseas stay, corroborating earlier findings on how participants judged a variety of specific aspects, technical and nontechnical. In broad and narrow terms, the participants' evaluations of their sojourn hinged primarily on the quality of the training they got; other aspects seemed more peripheral.

Suggestions for Changes

Another source of information on how participants viewed their experience is the set of questions that dealt with desired changes. They were asked: "If you were to go through that program again, what changes would you like to have made in it? What do you think would make it more useful? Why?"

Since the form of these questions permitted trainees a very wide latitude, and allowed them to couch their criticisms in a constructive manner it is not surprising that they were more voluble than in their other evaluative remarks. Only 11 per cent of them stated that they could think of nothing that needed changing; the remaining eight out of nine made an average of two suggestions apiece. These varied widely in scope and target; taken together, they show some contradictory patterns, with some trainees wanting more and others less of the same program feature. As a result it is difficult to do more than catalogue the replies in the coded versions available to us, and point out links between them and findings cited earlier (Table 5.9).

It comes as no surprise that a longer period of training was the most frequently made suggestion. As noted earlier, the duration of a program was, among several technical aspects of training, the one with which participants were least often satisfied. The call for more practical work as part of training is a significant complaint, occurring in this context; it might also be related to suggestions that training be more specifically related to the trainee's needs. Both suggestions invoke an image of a program that was too abstract, too far removed in its standards or content from the work realities that the participant has had to confront. To an extent, the number who suggested a longer or more general training must be set off against those who wanted it to be more focussed or specialized in content. And partly underlying the issues of both the focus and length of training is a desire to obtain a degree; those who said they wanted more academic training may have had this in mind. A substantial number of suggestions revolved around the prior planning of programs, and in particular a more active role for the participant himself. And there were some expressions of concern over the proper job placement of the trainee upon his return.

TABLE 5.9.--CHANGES SUGGESTED BY PARTICIPANTS IN THE TRAINING PROGRAM
(In Percentages)

Would Have Liked:	Per Cent
Changes	
Longer, more, more general training	29
More practical work, on-the-job training; less theoretical	18
Program more specifically related to my needs, needs of job, country	18
More specialized program; fewer subjects; see fewer places	17
More advance information; more orientation	14
To plan my own program, select place; to be consulted in planning	12
Better planning, organization; more guidance	11
More, some observation; more visits	10
More academic, theoretical training	8
To go to a different place, country, university	7
More emphasis on language in selection; some (more) training in it	7
To obtain an academic degree	6
More planning for job after training; selection based on needs of job, country	5
Study teams, groups selected for same background, interests	5
More help in living expenses--food, housing, transportation, money	4
More leisurely training program	3
Shorter, less repetitious program	3
Less elementary, higher level program	2
Less, no observation; eliminate certain visits	2
Less, no academic training; eliminate certain subjects, courses	2
Less difficult program, more suited to my background	1
Other changes, unspecified	18
Don't know, no answer	1
No Changes at All Needed	11
Total %	214[a]
(N)	(19025)

[a] Percentages add to more than 100% because of multiple responses.

Most of these are themes which have been encountered previously as sources of concern or of dissatisfaction among participants. Their renewed appearance in this context serves to underscore the influence of these particular predeparture and sojourn-connected aspects of a participant's training upon his long-term evaluations of its worth. But these suggestions are too mixed to permit more summary generalizations, especially since they cannot be correlated unambiguously with the kinds of training which gave rise to them. Other data on changes that might help to improve participant training were obtained from the supervisors of these trainees, and will be discussed later on.

Satisfaction with Training

At the end of their interview the participants were asked to give a few summary judgments of their program. One of these was phrased as follows: "From an over-all viewpoint, how satisfactory was that training program? [Was it very . . . moderately . . . not too . . . or not at all satisfactory?]

In response to this direct probe few participants expressed themselves in a negative vein. Almost half (48%) said they were "very satisfied," and 44 per cent were "moderately satisfied." Another 7 per cent said they were "not too satisfied," leaving only one per cent who were "not at all satisfied." (This last proportion seems to be a bedrock figure for total rejection of the training experience; it appears with respect to every major evaluative item.)

With such an overwhelmingly favorable orientation, one can only find hints of possible sources of variation among groups of trainees. A few categories of participants tended to be especially satisfied: those trained in or working in the fields of labor or of health; those who were the oldest (over 50) or the most experienced in their occupational specialty when selected; those whose training occurred prior to 1955 (pre-ICA participants) and had thus been back for six years or longer; those sent to Lebanon, Puerto Rico, or other third country sites solely, except for the ones in the Far East; and those whose programs lasted two years or even longer (a large proportion of whom earned degrees). The participants included in these categories are very heterogeneous; no common elements are apparent in their background or programs which could serve as bases for interpreting their slightly higher levels of satisfaction with training. "Satisfaction," in sum, is an outcome of training with a multiplicity of sources.

Importance of Training

One final aspect of a trainee's general perspective that was touched on in the survey was his rating of its importance. The question bearing on this issue posed a set of alternatives in a deliberately exaggerated form.

> Some participants, after they return, think their program was one of the most important things they ever did, some think it was a waste of time, and others rate it somewhere in between. How would you rate your program? Why do you feel that way?

A large majority continued to express their approval of training even in these very enthusiastic terms. Two-thirds of the participants agreed with the proposition that their program has proved to be "one of the most important things" they had ever done, while only one per cent went as far as labelling training "a waste of time." The reasons that were offered in support of the former judgment show clearly that the personal gains derived from training can be paramount to a trainee in his evaluation of the experience, relative to the occupational purposes it was manifestly intended to serve. For, while the occupational significance of the program was the single reason cited most often, the personal impacts of the training experience--in terms of heightened self-perception, contributing to cross-national understanding, a greater sense of human relatedness, or gaining such specific advantages as a better job--figured almost as strongly in their statements (Table 5.10).

The perception that training can enhance one's personal status or bestow other career advantages is a strategic one. It can foster the achievement of technical and nontechnical objectives alike. Few individuals have so strong a sense of "vocational calling" that no other inducements are required to sustain their interest as they move through a formal program of instruction. Incentives are also needed to promote a high degree of effective use of the knowledge and skills they have acquired. The wedding of the "public" goals of national development to the "private" ones of self-improvement or gains in status represents a powerful force. It can help to open the trainees to new ideas and the learning of techniques that will improve their occupational performance in critical tasks.

Because this personal factor was so prominent a feature of participants' assessments of a program's importance, we would not expect to find regularities among subgroups of trainees in their ratings. Few were found, and they were correlated with only slightly more favorable judgments of the importance of training. On balance, in their retrospective appraisals of the training experience these "consumers" were quite satisfied.

TABLE 5.10.--PARTICIPANTS' VIEWS ON THE IMPORTANCE OF THEIR TRAINING
(In Percentages)

Rating of Training (and Reason)	Per Cent
ONE OF THE MOST IMPORTANT THINGS EVER DONE	66
Occupational Significance--I acquired new ideas, methods applicable to my country; can work more effectively, make a greater contribution; it was useful to my employer, country	63
General Personal Growth and Development--It was educational, gave me experience; I developed broader insight, see matters from a different angle; it gave me self-confidence, courage	41
Cross-Cultural Significance--I came to know a developed country, developed mutual understanding; I could compare situations at home and abroad; I met people, made friends	24
Specific Personal, Practical Advantage--I improved my position, have a better job, increased prestige; learned about labor unions; learned how to handle people; obtained a degree	10
Other Reasons	4
Reason Not Specified	2
	144%[a]
IN BETWEEN (NEITHER "MOST IMPORTANT" NOR "WASTE OF TIME")	33
A WASTE OF TIME[b]	1
Total %	100%
(N)	(19025)

[a] Based on respondents who rated training as "one of the most important things. . . "; multiple responses were coded.

[b] Of those who rated training as "a waste of time" half cited some defect in the program per se, and most of the remainder criticized the fitness of training for their needs or work.

Some Evaluations by Supervisors

The design of this evaluation study called for two sets of questions to be addressed to the current work supervisor of each surveyed participant, wherever this was possible. Two kinds of evaluative data were sought from them: judgments relating to the training of *individual subordinates* (who had already been interviewed and had assented to having their supervisor questioned), and their assessments of some *aspects of participant training* as a programmatic whole. The former set of judgments could be compared with the views of their subordinates, and serve to an extent as corroboration of trainees' assertions.[1] The latter set of evaluations were felt to be an expecially valuable contribution to a review of the program in each country, because of the strategic vantage points these supervisors occupied in the development work in their countries.

Data of both types will be employed in this section in an attempt to delineate the general perspectives of this supervisory group, as a second or alternative source for exploring the conduct and effects of training. Where their aggregated views converge on or conform with those of the participants we can expect the substance of the findings on such issues to have greater validity, although the extent of or underlying reasons for the similarity of views may vary from country to country. (A detailed analysis of the variability of evaluations between individual trainees and their supervisors is beyond the scope of this report. The most appropriate level for doing this is within each country, where such discrepancies can be traced to specific circumstances or work contexts.)[2]

Views on the Training of Subordinates

The supervisors were asked a series of questions about the training their subordinates received. For the most part, the answers they gave indicated a high degree of approval, although some of their clarifications and suggestions differed in matters of detail or in emphasis from responses given by participants to similar questions. Two questions had to do with the organizational value of training. As a summary type of appraisal they were asked: "Do you think that this training program [of participant X] was worth the cost and difficulty it caused your organization, or . . . not?"

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[1] An earlier study of ICA participants had turned up evidence of sizable discrepancies between the views of former trainees and their supervisors. See: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Using U. S. Training in the Philippines: A Follow-up Survey of Participants, Volumes I & II. (Ann Arbor, May 1959).

[2] Another reason for treating these data circumspectly in this report has to do with their representative character. Countries varied widely in the successful execution of this phase of the study design. And within each country, supervisors of certain types or groups of trainees were disproportionally represented in the aggregate. For these reasons, we have not weighted the replies of the supervisors as we did those of participants. In all, 3909 supervisors gave their own views on training, and then rated 5871 participants; this latter total was reduced by later data processing to 5600 participants for whom supervisors' opinions were available. See footnote 1 on page 39 for further discussion.

Five out of six trainees' programs (84%) were judged to have been worthwhile from this organizational perspective, and only 4 per cent were flatly adjudged not to have been; the rest received a "don't know" response by the supervisors. One key influence on this over-all retrospective judgment was a supervisor's prior involvement with his subordinate's program. Those programs in which the supervisors had been most active at the early stages of training--helping to select the trainee and planning his program--were almost universally (97%) thought to have proved their worth to the employing organization, compared with 82 per cent of the programs in which the trainees' supervisors had taken no part at all. One cannot tell from the data at hand whether this relationship arises from a supervisor's desire, in retrospect, to justify by his answers the value of his own prior activities, or is the result of a better prepared program. In any case, adequate organizational benefits of training seem, by their testimony, to have been realized in a preponderant majority of cases.

A second and more direct indicator of the organizational value of training, as judged by the supervisors, was contained in a question concerning "how suitable" the training of each subordinate was "for his usefulness to your organization?" Again, about five out of six trainees' programs were judged in approving terms; and although the answers tended to be left unspecified, a little more criticism was expressed with respect to this particular criterion. Training was deemed "very suitable" or "good" without further comment in more than half of the cases for which supervisory ratings were obtained, and the main reason given was that it has proven to be applicable on the job (Table 5.11). One can conclude from this and the previous finding that as spokesmen for the organizations in which these former trainees are currently working the supervisors show strong convictions about the worth of participant training, in "cost-benefit" terms, for most of those whose programs they rated.

As were participants, supervisors were asked for concrete suggestions of changes they would like to see. "If you had to send another person on a training program like [participant X's] would you like to see any changes made in it?"

Their free responses to this more permissively-worded question pointed to some areas of discontent in a manner that other data did not. They also bear a strong resemblance to the profile of changes suggested by the participants. First, in 30 per cent of the cases, the supervisors said they had no suggestions to offer, with the clear implication that another program just like the one under review would be satisfactory. Another 20 per cent of trainees' programs didn't give rise to any suggested changes, leaving one half of the trainees' programs with respect to which some improvement or alteration was suggested by supervisors.

TABLE 5.11.--SUPERVISORS' VIEWS ON THE SUITABILITY OF PARTICIPANTS' TRAINING PROGRAMS
(In Percentages)

Suitability of Program[a]		Per Cent
Training Was:		
Very Suitable, Good (Nonspecific)		51.8
Good Because:		32.5
Applicable, useful on the job	20.4	
Participant has introduced new methods	3.4	
Participant is conveying his training to others	3.4	
Participant's personal growth; led to promotion	3.4	
Other positive comments	1.9	
Neutral, Made no Difference		0.6
Bad:		7.3
Inappropriate, not being used	4.3	
Other negative comments	3.0	
Don't Know and No Answer		7.8
Total %		100.0
(N)		(5871)[b]

[a] "How suitable was [participant's] training for his usefulness to your organization?"

[b] Actual (unweighted) number of trainees whose programs were evaluated in these terms by their work supervisors.

Like the participants, supervisors most frequently suggested a longer period of training. Three closely related changes in the content of programs were mentioned next: training that is more practical, more specific, and more relevant to the needs (or conditions) that will be confronted upon return. Alterations in the preparatory stage of training were made the focus of some supervisors' remarks, mostly having to do with longer "lead-time," or more advance work with trainees in their own country, and a greater role to be played by the supervisors. But as with the changes suggested by the participants there were also some which went in the opposite directions to the ones already discussed; for example, while some wanted a more pragmatic or narrowly focussed type of training, a few wanted a more general or theoretical type (Table 5.12).

TABLE 5.12.--CHANGES IN TRAINING PROGRAM SUGGESTED BY SUPERVISORS
(In Percentages)

Suggested Changes[a]	Per Cent	
CHANGES IN PROGRAM CONTENT		45.5
Narrower in Focus		
More practical training/work experience	11.9	
More specific content/fewer subjects	11.5	
Broader in Focus		
Include different aspects of field	4.8	
Permit participant to get degree	3.4	
More general content/more subjects studied	2.7	
Program should be more advanced	2.1	
More theoretical or academic work	1.3	
Other Changes in Content	7.8	
CHANGES IN PROGRAM PLANNING		26.4
More Relevant to Needs of Participant/Employer/Country	11.0	
Supervisor Should Have More Important Role		
In planning program/selecting topics/country	4.4	
In selecting participants	2.2	
Other Changes in Program Planning		
More of preparations in participant's country; more time to prepare program; follow programs as planned, with fewer changes	8.8	
CHANGES IN LENGTH OF PROGRAM		16.0
Training Should be Longer	14.0	
Other Comments	2.0	
OTHER SUGGESTIONS (unspecified)		12.1
Total %		100.0
(N)		(3958)[b]

[a] "If you had to send another person on a training program like [participant X's], would you like to see any changes made in it?"

[b] Percentages are based on the number of changes suggested by the supervisors of a total of 2964 (unweighted) participants, with respect to whom some codable suggestion was made.

For finer interpretation, these suggestions for changes would have to be related to the specific character of the programs which gave rise to them, a task that seems unwarranted by the data. In general, they show a high degree of convergence with those proposed by the participants; both placed some emphasis on longer training and on the provision of more practical (relevant to work) experience. For both groups, the technical (content) aspects of training assumed the primary importance in their suggestions; by comparison, the nontechnical aspects received little attention.

A final question, relating to the importance of training for their subordinate's current work, was phrased as follows:

> As a qualification for his present job how important was [participant X's] training program--essential, very important, helpful but not very important, not useful, or would he have been better off without it?

From this "contemporary" standard, training again is judged as having made substantial contributions. One-third of their subordinates' programs were judged "essential" and an additional 42 per cent were rated as "very important." Only 3 per cent were rated "not useful" or "harmful" to the current job performance of former trainees. One central program dimension stands out as influential to the supervisors' evaluations; as was true of the trainees' ratings, the longer the duration of training the more importance was ascribed to it (Table 5.13). Correlated with this was a pronounced tendency for programs consisting solely of an observation or group tour to be evaluated important less often by supervisors. Further analysis showed the supervisors' evaluations to be related to the character of training, not the attributes of their subordinates. And again the greater or more active the involvement of the supervisors prior to training (1) the more highly was the program's worth judged later on, and (2) the more frequent were the subsequent discussions about training between them. These data point clearly to the value of developing an active and cooperative relationship with participants' supervisors at the earliest planning stage, in order to make training maximally useful.

Opinions on Aspects of the Program

Supervisors were asked a set of questions pertaining to general aspects of the program, unrelated to their views about the training of specific individuals. A list of items was read to them, and they were asked whether a given aspect of participant training was "generally satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory," and if the latter,

TABLE 5.13.--SUPERVISORS' EVALUATIONS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF A PARTICIPANT'S TRAINING PROGRAM BY ITS DURATION
(In Percentages)

Importance of Training For Participant's Job		Duration of Training Program				Total
		Up to 2 Mos.	2 Up to 6 Mos.	6 Up to 24 Mos.	24 Mos. and Over	
Supervisor Rates It As:						
Essential, or very important		63	71	79	89	77
Helpful--not important		30	25	18	10	20
Not useful, or harmful		7	4	3	1	3
Total[a]	%	100	100	100	100	100
	(N)	(273)	(1111)	(3797)	(173)	(5354)

[a] Excludes "don't know" and N.A. on supervisor's ratings (N=170) and N.A. on duration of program (N=76).

for what reasons. They were also asked whether they had ever been ICA participants --about one-third (32%) had been--thus providing a natural basis for comparing the replies that were given. The results clearly show that whether or not a superior had himself been a participant made no difference in his judgments (Table 5.14).

TABLE 5.14.--SUPERVISORS' OPINIONS OF SELECTED PROGRAM ASPECTS BY PRIOR PARTICIPATION IN A TRAINING PROGRAM

Program Aspect	Rated as "Satisfactory"[a] (In Percentages)			
	Previously a Participant		Never a Participant	
Level of programs	83	(1135)	86	(1937)
Subject matter	78	(1137)	80	(1767)
Practical experience	76	(1152)	76	(2059)
Country of training	71	(1192)	72	(2263)
Selection procedures	69	(1117)	69	(1854)
Length of programs	50	(1183)	56	(2147)

[a] Parentheses contain the numbers in each group who expressed an opinion about each aspect. Those coded as "can't say" or N.A. were excluded; depending upon the aspect, this proportion ranged as high as 10% among former participants, and between 10 and 30% among the other supervisory group.

The two groups were also very similar in the reasons they gave for being dissatisfied (those few who were, in most cases). Here are the major ones mentioned with respect to each aspect.

Level of programs.--Five-sixths of both groups were satisfied with this aspect; the weight of criticisms was more that programs tended to be too elementary than too advanced. The same pattern was noted earlier, in the participants' evaluations of this dimension.

Subject-matter covered in training.--Almost four in five approved in general terms of this catch-all aspect of training. Three sources of dissatisfaction stood out: training inappropriate to participants' work; training inappropriate to their backgrounds or experience (too simple, echoing the criticism noted above); and training whose scope was either too broad or too narrow. All of these have figured prominently in earlier-cited criticisms by participants and supervisors, and only add further support to them.

Practical experience provided in programs.--About three-quarters saw this as generally satisfactory. Those who were negative said that not enough was provided, or that the experience offered in training could not be applied to the home environment, or that it was too narrow.

Country (or countries) of training.--About 70 per cent of the supervisors were satisfied. Three main criticisms were voiced: training should be given more often in Europe; or in the U.S.; or in a country more like the participant's home, in some way. The lack of a stay in Europe loomed as the greatest source of dissatisfaction. Former colonial ties or the cultural dominance of certain forms of European education may be at issue here.

Selection procedures.--This aspect of training was next to the lowest in the approval of supervisors, but about two-thirds of all who expressed a definite opinion found selection to be satisfactory. The reasons given by critical respondents fell into three categories: the agent of selection (i.e., more selection by supervisors, or by competitive examination); the weighing of various criteria (i.e., more attention to the amount of knowledge or experience in given fields of prospective trainees, or more importance allotted to the work-needs criterion); and the administrative procedures (i.e., too slow, or too careless). Of the three, the criterion issue was mentioned most often, and the supervisors who had been former trainees stressed this aspect of selection more than the other group.

Length of program.--As has been seen to be true in other contexts, the duration of training is the source of the most dissatisfaction among supervisors. Only about half were satisfied in general with this key aspect of training programs. And the explicit basis for dissatisfaction is equally apparent in the reasons given: training tends to be too short. A fraction of those giving this reply tied it to the issue of gaining a degree, but for the most part, what was wanted is simply more training.

In sum, the supervisors emerge from these data as being concerned primarily (and not surprisingly) with the relevance of a program of training for the work the returned participant will be called upon to do. As we saw, the participants put strong, often equal emphasis upon the personal rewards resulting from training as a basis for their evaluations. The judgments of their supervisors, by contrast, reflected the use of "hard-line" criteria, and in these terms participant training has won a high degree of approval. Even the three issues around which their criticisms were centered--the length of training, the amount of practical experience provided, and their own role in selecting and preparing trainees--were usually phrased in terms that revealed an overriding concern with the ultimate technical objective of training, its occupational usefulness.[1]

For most participants the supervisor is the key figure in their pre- or post-training environment. He is the source of information and orientation, the selection agent, the facilitator of innovation, and the distributor of rewards. By virtue of his formal role as the "gatekeeper" of organizational benefits a supervisor can play a crucial part in creating and maintaining the conditions under which his subordinates can use their trained skills and knowledge most effectively. The more supervisors enter into the program process, the more convinced they become of the value of training and the more can participant training make the contribution to development that is its primary objective.

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[1] The limitations on responses imposed by the form and content of most questions obviously influenced this pattern, but even the unstructured questions failed to elicit much comment about nontechnical issues or objectives, or personal impacts on trainees.

The fact that only one-third of the supervisors had been participants raises a strategic question from an administrative point of view. Can they be encouraged to contribute more effectively to the realization of occupational benefits of training by their subordinates by closer exposure, perhaps by special orientation trips to regional centers, if not as participants in a full scale program of their own? Such expenditures can be justified in terms of their value as "institution-building" devices, by diffusing knowledge of the aims and methodology of participant training more widely (and effectively) through personal contact. Or should special "teams" --of supervisors and a few key subordinates--be chosen more often, rather than focussing selection on individuals? A canvass of the possibilities of devising useful programs for integrated teams or work groups might help also to clarify the role of training in the total plan of development assistance, field by field, for each country.

Some Evaluations by U. S. Technicians

The study design also incorporated a provision for tapping the opinions and judgments of U. S. Mission officials in each of the surveyed countries. Systematic interviews with knowledgeable ICA/AID technicians in the various development fields would, it was hoped, provide a third body of data which would reflect a very different perspective on the program, one more detached from the concerns of host country respondents. As with the supervisors, two sets of questions were posed: one relating to specific trainees whom the technicians knew well enough to evaluate their programs and current work, and a second set which dealt more generally with their perceptions and evaluations of aspects of the program. The aim of the former inquiry was to provide still another independent check on the judgments offered by the participants. Both types of data obtained from these officials could be compared, to an extent, with those gained from interviews with the participants and the supervisory group, making for a "triangulation" of perspectives--on the programs of individual trainees,[1] and, in the aggregate, on participant training in each country.

This phase of the study was not too successful. In four countries--Egypt, India, Chile and British Guiana--no interviews were conducted with any U. S. technicians.

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[1] Such a "triangulation"--data about specific individuals from his supervisor, a U. S. technician and himself--was actually achieved for only 19% of the returned participants.

In the remainder, often no one could be found who knew the returned participants well enough to evaluate their training or current situation; this was especially true for participants who had returned from training four or more years prior to the date of the survey in their country.[1] (The practice of short-term hire or rotation in service of U. S. technicians as well as their limited numbers obviously accounts for this result.) Moreover, trainees currently located in the capital city area of their countries were much more likely to have been rated by a technician than those either in the provincial centers or rural areas. And there are fields of training for which technicians' ratings of former participants are disproportionately represented, again reflecting vagaries in the allocation of technical assistance personnel in certain specialties at various times to these countries.

Because of these biasing elements in the data, our analysis of findings must be considered merely as suggestive and provisional in character. We will employ them mainly as source materials for a brief collective portrait of this group's views on participant training.

Evaluations of Participants and Programs

Technicians were asked for opinions of the abilities and attitudes of specific trainees, as well as judgments on the quality of their programs. In both instances the questions were phrased to draw an explicit link between the item under review and the successful use of training at work. Immediately prior to these probes, however, they were asked to give an over-all current assessment of the importance of training for the work of the former participants.

> I would like you to rate the contribution that each participant's training program has made to his ability to perform his present job well.
> How about [participant Y]? would you say that his training made a major . . . or a minor contribution to his ability to do his work or . . . was [it] of no importance, or . . . actually reduced his usefulness?

The value of training from this standpoint seems to be well established in the eyes of the technicians. Almost two-thirds (64%) of the trainees' programs were rated as having made a "major contribution"; if the ambiguous answers are excluded, this proportion climbs to nearly three out of four. And, directly corroborating the views of participants and supervisors (each gained wholly independently) in the technicians' judgments the longer the duration of training the more significant was its contribution (Table 5.15).

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[1] Initially, interviews with 511 U. S. technicians from nineteen countries (done about equally in 1961 and 1962) were available, yielding ratings on 30 per cent of the returned participants. As a result of further processing of the data, this figure was reduced to 2645, or 27 per cent of the 9668 former trainees who were interviewed in the countries included in our analysis. This proportion is often drastically reduced by the terms of specific questions; a technician's rating of some phase of training was often not called for, if he was not in a position to have known the participant then. Because of their nonrepresentative character, these data have not been weighted prior to tabulation.

TABLE 5.15.--TECHNICIANS' EVALUATIONS OF THE CONTRIBUTION OF A PARTICIPANT'S PROGRAM BY ITS DURATION
(In Percentages)

Contribution to Present Work		Duration of Training Program				Total
		Up to 2 Mos.	2 Up to 6 Mos.	6 Up to 24 Mos.	24 Mos. And Over	
Technician Rates It As:						
Major contribution		54	64	75	85	71
Minor contribution		36	29	20	11	23
No contribution, or reduced usefulness		10	7	5	4	6
Total[a]	%	100	100	100	100	100
	(N)	(216)	(580)	(1523)	(75)	(2394)

[a] Excludes "don't know" or N.A. on technician's ratings (N=237); also those N.A. on duration (N=14). These are actual (unweighted) numbers of trainees whose programs are so rated by U. S. technicians.

The unanimity of the three groups on this aspect of training, despite differences in question-wording, is most impressive, and is supported by many other parallels in detailed analysis of this issue. For example, the type of program that consisted solely of an observation tour was uniformly viewed more critically by all three sources. And all three rated the training of those highest and lowest in occupational status as less significant or important than of the middle status groups of professionals, technicians and supervisors. We can conclude that the justification for observation tours cannot be stated primarily in terms of its value in achieving technical (work-related) goals of training; the empirical data point in the opposite direction. The putative value of this or other brief training programs needs to be debated in terms of other goals and outcomes.

The pattern of avoiding measures relating to personality characteristics of former participants to which this study generally adhered was departed from slightly in the interviews with technicians. They were asked to rate each of the trainees they knew on "certain personality attributes" which are assumed to be necessary at a minimum for them "to benefit from the training and later to apply it in their jobs." In each instance a rating of "adequate" or "inadequate" was requested. In general, surprisingly little evidence of criticism was uncovered (Table 5.16).

TABLE 5.16.--TECHNICIANS' RATINGS OF PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES OF PARTICIPANTS LINKED WITH SUCCESS OF TRAINING

Attribute of Participant	Per Cent Rated "Adequate"[a]
Intelligence	93
Educational qualifications	88
Attitude toward training program	86
Attitude toward present job	84
Knowledge of language in which training was given	78

[a] For each attribute the percentage was based on a total of 2855 (unweighted) participants, those for whom a technician's rating was available. "Can't rate" responses ranged from 5 to 9 %, depending on the item.

Those attributes which could be related to the selection processes showed little room for improvement, with the exception of the participant's command of English--the major language of training. The measures are crude, but in general the data do not indicate a belief on their part that much difficulty in the utilization of training arose from some personal deficiencies or inadequacies of the participants. Since less than a third of the U. S. officials also knew the trainees at selection, these judgments reflect their current assessments primarily, and cannot be seen merely as glosses on their previous good work in selecting such paragons. Nor did the trainees' "attitudes" seem to be a source of difficulty.

The officials were asked for ratings of the "suitability" of the programs, "for the participant and for the work he will be doing." There seemed to be remarkably little discontent with the actual nature of the training that was supplied; over nine out of ten programs were deemed satisfactory, no matter which specific aspect was being probed (Table 5.17). The reasons given by the few who were dissatisfied, with respect to each item, were the same as those given also by participants and supervisors. For example, on the issue of length, they thought programs were too short; on the type of program, they were split as to whether it should have been more practical or more academic; on the country of training, they thought it should have been one more like the home country of the trainee, and so on. The numbers are too small to warrant further comment.

TABLE 5.17.--TECHNICIANS' RATINGS OF PROGRAM ASPECTS: SUITABILITY FOR PARTICIPANT'S CURRENT WORK

Program Aspect	Per Cent Rated "Satisfactory"	(N)[a]
Country of training	98	(2501)
Type of program	95	(2408)
Subject-matter coverage	95	(2376)
Level of program	94	(2375)
Practical experience	94	(2369)
Length of program	91	(2375)
Predeparture preparations	91	(1737)

[a] Number of trainees whose programs were rated by U. S. technicians. Excludes "can't rate" responses; this ranged between 12 and 17% of the total available ratings, except for "predeparture preparations"--39% couldn't rate that aspect.

General Evaluations: USOM Perspectives

This group of technicians was asked to comment on the operation of the program in their host country, from their vantage point as the U. S. officials closest to the development work for which the training of participants was required. Their answers pertain to concrete situations in each country and are most appropriately reviewed at that level. But in the aggregate they shed a little light on how well the program seems to be institutionalized, and what steps would be helpful to improve it.

They were asked about the strong and weak points of the program in general. Three-quarters mentioned some aspect of the program in an approving vein, mostly that it has worked well or effectively or has provided training which was particularly appropriate to the country's (or the trainees') needs. Almost four out of five, however, also specified some weak spots. The following were mentioned, in order of frequency, by 10 per cent or more of the technicians: selection methods are inappropriate; placement in relevant work could be stressed more; more practical training, better suited to home country conditions is needed; more effort should be made to secure better cooperation or participation by the host government. While the numbers involved are small, the generality of these suggestions for improvements is heightened by the fact that most have also been made by one or both of the other sources of data.

The issue of how well USOM was doing in making it possible for the participants' training to be used effectively was touched on, with equivocal results. Although 48 per cent of those who were especially satisfied about some aspect of USOM activities mentioned its effectiveness in placing trainees appropriately, another 34 per cent mentioned poor or inadequate efforts in placing trainees as their chief source of dissatisfaction. No other single factor, such as the quality of Mission support (in the form of money or technician-consultants) or host country-Mission cooperation drew as many comments of an approving or disapproving sort as the issue of placement; again, however, the numbers are small and the referents of these coded comments are very general.

As a sidelight, the technicians were asked about the most effective forms of "follow-up" activities, and it is clear that personal contacts between technicians and returned participants, on an as-needed or regularly scheduled basis, far outweigh all other suggested techniques in their estimation. Three-quarters of them referred to such contacts, while any other single method of following up on trainees, such as organizations of ex-participants, newsletters or other written materials, or workshops, were referred to by fewer than 15 per cent.

Finally, they were asked to suggest ways in which greater benefits could be derived from the program. Their suggestions were related to three program processes, for the most part: selection, training and placement. From their perspectives as field workers, selection could be improved: in general (18%), by placing greater weight on experience or proven ability (15%) or on language ability (7%), and by eliminating the influence of political or family influence (9%). The content of training could be improved: in general (32%), or by tailoring it more closely to the needs of the country (10%). Great gains in utilization resulting from better placement were mentioned by 32 per cent of these officials; this phase provoked the greatest number of suggestions for changes. Among the other scattered suggestions were: providing more job incentives to participants (11%); using them more systematically in training others (10%); striving in some way to provide understanding or eliminating resentment and jealousy of higher echelon officials (8%).

These coded comments remain at a general level and are in any case too few to permit sound conclusions to be drawn. The impression one gains from reviewing all the available data from the U. S. officials who were interviewed is that for them selection and placement, especially the latter, are the main stumbling blocks to effective utilization. Their general approval of the quality of specific participants, and the substance of training programs does not seem to be matched by their level of satisfaction with how trainees end up being employed. They see the primary sources of difficulty, one can suggest, as residing in the posttraining environment of the returned participant, and it is to this last phase of the program that we now turn our attention.

VI: THE AFTERMATH OF TRAINING: EMPLOYMENT AND UTILIZATION

With this chapter we complete the review of survey findings on the "careers" of participants, from their initial selection to their ultimate occupational placement and performance. Utilization of training and the conditions affecting its use will be the central topic for analysis. Data are presented in two sections, a preliminary one dealing with the occupational settings of returned participants and the other with their patterns of utilization. In the former the jobs to which they returned and those held currently (at interview) are viewed from various standpoints; data on the relationship of training to career changes will also be examined. Two additional aspects of a participant's work setting pertinent to his use of training are discussed: his relations with USOM or American advisors, and his relations with his work supervisor. The rest of the chapter is devoted to an intensive review of the uses made of training. After defining an "effective program" we present survey data on its elements, and then trace the correlates of utilization by means of a specially contrived scale or index.

Occupational Setting and Mobility

The survey produced a good deal of detailed factual information on the past and current jobs of participants, together with some judgments about any changes in jobs they may have experienced. Occupational histories were obtained through questions about jobs at three points in time: at selection, immediately upon their return, and currently. The comprehensiveness of this follow-up effort, drawing as it does upon a wide range of participants (those returned more recently and those back for longer periods) thus affords a unique view of the "occupational fate" of foreign-trained people in underdeveloped countries.[1]

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[1] Two earlier attempts to assess the consequences of foreign training for job placement and performance dealt with a relative handful of students from India and Mexico. Both studies showed them to have been rather poorly placed for using training in subsequent work. See: John and Ruth Useem, The Western-Educated Man in India (New York: Dryden Press, 1955); Ralph Beals and Norman Humphrey, No

These factual data on jobs provide a useful background for analyzing the consequences of training for the careers of participants, and also the uses which they have made of the skills and knowledge acquired through training. They can also make a small contribution to a larger topic: the comparative study of occupations and careers among technical "elites" in these developing countries. Their usefulness is limited by the degree to which labels used in the categorization of jobs are comparable in meaning, by the selectivity of the samples (only people sponsored and trained by the U. S.), and more crucially by the variable and largely unknown character of the occupational system--recruitment patterns, work values, organizational and labor market conditions, etc.--which participants have confronted in their own countries.[1] Generalizations on topics such as, for example, occupational mobility are risky, if based solely on these data; which job changes are to be classified in their situational context as promotions, and which not? Then too, unemployment rates of participants can only be judged high or low relative to the prevailing employment situation among people of like status in each country. These limiting factors are particularly significant for a comparative analysis of careers in public bureaucracies, the work settings of most participants.[2] Thus, the factual data on jobs will not be analyzed in close detail, but rather in terms of a few broadly distinguishable dimensions.

Frontier to Learning: The Mexican Student in the United States (Minneapolis: Univ. of Minnesota Press, 1956). A recent small study, paralleling this one in some respects, is reported in: Y. Yannay, "Technical Cooperation Between Israel and the Developing World," International Development Review, Vol. VI, No. 3 (September 1964) pp. 10-15.

[1] The study of occupations and careers or of the linkages between occupational structure and other social institutions in developing countries have been neglected topics for systematic research. Even basic manpower surveys, which are a required first step for such studies by providing data on available skill groups often are not available or are of questionable accuracy. See Robert E. Mitchell, Occupations, Organizations and National Development, a Conference Paper (Berkeley: Survey Research Center, University of California, October 1965); Wilbert E. Moore and Arnold S. Feldman (eds.), Labor Commitment and Social Change in Developing Areas (New York: Social Science Research Council, 1960); Bert F. Hoselitz and Wilbert E. Moore (eds.), Industrialization and Society (UNESCO--Mouton, 1963); S. M. Lipset, "Research Problems in the Comparative Analysis of Mobility and Development," International Social Science Journal, Vol. XVI, No. 1 (1964), pp. 35-48.

[2] Recent work in comparative public administration (or its offshoot, "development administration") is beginning to supply concepts and data of the types needed to overcome such difficulties. See: William J. Siffin (ed.), Toward the Comparative Study of Public Administration (Bloomington: Indiana Univ. Press, 1959); Joseph LaPalombara (ed.), Bureaucracy and Political Development (Princeton: Princeton Univ. Press, 1963); Irving Swerdlow (ed.), Development Administration (Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1963); Martin Kriesberg (ed.), Public Administration in Developing Countries (Brookings Institution, 1965); Fred W. Riggs, Administration in Developing Countries (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, 1964).

Time Back Since Training

The element of time must enter into any assessment of the occupational consequences of training, such as job-changing or utilization. Introducing new ideas or techniques or effecting institutional change are innovative processes often requiring fairly long periods of time before any results become visible. The speed of successful innovation depends in part on the gifts of the change agent, and the resources available to him. But it is also likely to be strongly, perhaps decisively affected by the "receptivity of the environment," the rigidity of traditions, values and organizational patterns which he must confront. Thus, we can expect some outcomes of training to unfold only over a period of time.

Although interviewed at various points over a period of several years, all participants had been back from training at least six months. The length of time they had been back at the time of interview provides a point of reference by means of which they can be uniformly classified. One in five had returned less than two years previously, one-third had come back between two and four years prior to interviewing, and the rest had been back even longer. Most of this last group were participants from the pre-ICA years (Table 6.1).

TABLE 6.1.--TIME SINCE COMPLETION OF TRAINING
(AT INTERVIEW)

Time Back	Per Cent
Seven or more years	15.1
Six to under seven years	8.4
Five to under six years	11.7
Four to under five years	11.6
Three to under four years	13.2
Two to under three years	19.2
One to under two years	16.6
Six months to under one year	4.0
Don't know, N.A.	.1
Total %	99.9
(N)	(19025)

Groups of participants back from training for successively longer periods can be compared on measures of job-changing, uses of training, plans for further use, and so on. In this manner the effects of time on such variables can be demonstrated, at least by analogy. (A longitudinal study of groups, using repeated measurements of them, is the only fully satisfactory research design for establishing the differential effects of time.) This variable will prove particularly helpful in exploring the nature of training as an economic good: is it a "wasting asset" whose value was realized quickly, or (as we suggested above) is it an asset whose worth increased with the passage of time?

Occupational Status: Then and Now

Data gathered in the survey on the participants' status levels at selection (discussed in chapter II) and at interview were coded into identical categories. The distribution of participants at these two points in time is shown below (Table 6.2). From these figures one can discern a net loss from the ranks of professionals and subprofessionals, and a net gain in the administrative and managerial categories. These figures conceal a fair amount of shifting within or across status levels. Some have retired, while others became active in the interim (e.g., those who were unemployed or students at selection). A few have dropped a rung or two, while more have climbed; some switched from professional roles or production work to administration or management, while others did the opposite, and so on.

TABLE 6.2.--OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF PARTICIPANTS AT SELECTION AND AT INTERVIEW
(In Percentages)

AT TIME OF SELECTION		OCCUPATIONAL STATUS	AT TIME OF INTERVIEW	
Total	In Status		In Status	Total
0.7		Top Policy Makers, Execs. & Administrators		1.0
	19	University Presidents, Administrators	19	
	16	Directors of National Welfare Organizations	16	
	15	Ministers, Agency Heads	15	
	13	Directors of National Profit-Making Orgs.	14	
	13	Executives of Labor & Trade Unions	8	
	24	Other	28	
	100	(N)=132 (N)=197	100	
6.9		Second Level Policy Makers, Execs. & Admins.		10.0
	31	Executives of Local Enterprises	30	
	24	National Agency Deputies, Asst. Dirs., etc.	26	
	16	Nonnational Gov. Agency Directors & Deputies	19	
	12	Execs. of Regional & Local Trade Unions	7	
	9	Administrators of Colleges, Institutes	10	
	8	Other	8	
	100	(N)=1,320 (N)=1,893	100	

TABLE 6.2--Continued

AT TIME OF SELECTION		OCCUPATIONAL STATUS	AT TIME OF INTERVIEW	
Total	In Status		In Status	Total
28.7		Administrative Officials: Line and Staff		33.2
	41	Production Managers, Field Directors	46	
	15	Personnel, Welfare, Finance & Admin. Officers	13	
	15	Principals, Educ. Inspectors, Hosp. Admins.	14	
	13	Exec. Assistants, Tech. Advisors, Officers	13	
	16	Other	14	
	100	(N)=5,461 (N)=6,307	100	
34.8		Professionals: Scientists & Teachers		31.3
	28	University Teachers	31	
	18	Other Teachers	18	
	21	Agricultural Scientists	20	
	16	Medical & Physical Scientists	15	
	10	Economists & Social Scientists	9	
	7	Other	7	
	100	(N)=6,626 (N)=5,951	100	
10.8		Engineers		9.4
	37	Civil Engineers	33	
	16	Electrical & Electronic Engineers	15	
	14	Agricultural Engineers	16	
	13	Mechanical Engineers	13	
	20	Other	23	
	100	(N)=2,057 (N)=1,782	100	
9.0		Subprofessionals, Technicians		7.6
	28	Technical Aides	34	
	18	Nurses & Public Health Technicians	18	
	11	Engineering Aides, Surveyors, Draftsmen	12	
	9	Research Assistants	4	
	34	Other	32	
	100	(N)=1,710 (N)=1,437	100	
2.9		Supervisors, Inspectors, & Foremen		2.7
1.5		Artisans & Craftsmen		1.0
1.8		Workers & Others		1.5
	38	Clerical Workers	38	
	15	Unskilled Workers	14	
	47	Others	48	
	100	(N)=349 (N)=276	100	
2.8		Inactive & Not Ascertained (Including Students & Retired)		2.4
99.9				100.1
(N)=19,025		Total Participants		(N)=19,025

Participants *within* each country were classified at both points in time with the same categories, making their patterns of status mobility truly comparable. Assuming only a rough equivalence in meaning of these status categories *across* countries, we can conclude that *mobility in occupational status was experienced by between one-fifth and one-quarter of these participants*. And even with these imprecise categories it appears as though the amount of mobility varied sharply with one's status at selection: the lower the status the greater the proportion who moved (upward). The main dividing line, as one might expect, fell between the professionals or managers and the subprofessionals or those lower in occupational status. Mobility among the former was chiefly *within* the upper ranks, while among the latter group mobility was *into* the upper ranks, mainly into middle management or professional jobs. If for the lower status group (numerically quite small among those selected for participant training) there was no place to go but up, for those initially more favored in status there was apparently little risk of falling far or at all. These data do not, however, permit one to judge whether training has been instrumental in such mobility among status levels. (We will present the participants' personal views on this question shortly.) But, given these sharply contrasting patterns we are alerted to the likelihood that the personal impact of training, in terms of the career ascents experienced by participants, cannot have been very great for most, however dramatic the gains in status made by a few: The status groups which have supplied the bulk of participants do not show much substantive change on this measure (Table 6.3).

This mode of analysis is most appropriately carried out at the country level, where findings can be related directly to the underlying occupational structure in each. As noted, participant training is not often undertaken with the intended objective of improving a participant's position. Thus this kind of finding is only a partial and indirect indicator of one important class of outcomes. And, accepting the limitations of the data, the fact that over three quarters of the participants were at *exactly* the same status level at both times serves as a telling reminder of the restricted range of opportunities imposed upon the careers of foreign-trained elites, by tradition-bound bureaucracies or by the very limited rates of growth in most underdeveloped countries.

TABLE 6.3.--PATTERNS OF MOBILITY IN OCCUPATIONAL STATUS FROM SELECTION TO INTERVIEW

Categories of Occupational Status at Selection	Occupational Status at Interview (In Percentages)					Total (N) (=100%)[b]
	Mobile in Status[a]			Same Status	Inactive	
	Higher	Lower	Equivalent			
(1,2) Top and secondary policy-makers, executives	-	9	3	83	5	(1447)
(3) Administrative officials, managers	8	2	6	82	2	(5450)
(4) Engineers	3	2	23	71	1	(2044)
(5) Professionals: scientists, teachers	4	3	14	78	1	(6608)
(6) Subprofessionals, technicians	27	2	2	67	2	(1704)
(7) Supervisors, foremen	30	3	4	62	1	(546)
(8) Artisans, craftsmen	34	4	-	59	3	(288)
(9) Workers, others	40	-	-	56	4	(349)
Total	9	3	10	76	2	(18436)

[a] Definitions of mobility categories:

For Category:	Higher	Lower	Equiv.	For Category:	Higher	Lower	Equiv.
1,2	-	3-9	1,2	6	1-5	8,9	7
3	1,2	6-9	4,5	7	1-5	8,9	6
4	1,2	6-9	3,5	8	1-7	9	-
5	1,2	6-9	3,4	9	1-8	-	-

[b] Excludes those who were "students," and N.A. at selection or interview (N=589).

Economic Sectors: Then and Now

The participants' occupations at selection and interview were also classified into economic sectors or "areas of activity," using standard ICA categories. The distribution of jobs at the two points in time were quite similar: education, governmental administration and agriculture were the three largest sectors, accounting for more than half of the participants both before and after training (Table 6.4). These figures mask a small amount of mobility by participants across the boundaries of these major work sectors: just over 15 per cent were in a different sector at the time of interview than when selected. A few sectors, notably labor and community development had appreciably lower proportions who were in the same field currently as when selected for training. By comparing the sectors on this "stability" measure, and also with the balance of their gains and losses as reflected in the job histories of participants we may be able to infer something about the relative "attractiveness" of each of the work sectors for this strategic group. To do so, we assume only that any empirical patterns of stability and change which are found in these data reflect some prior exercise of personal choice by participants, and are not wholly the result of impersonal market forces, such as stagnation, or structural constraints on job mobility imposed by a central authority.

TABLE 6.4.--PARTICIPANTS' AREAS OF ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, AT SELECTION AND AT INTERVIEW
(In Percentages)

AT TIME OF SELECTION		AREA OF ECONOMIC ACTIVITY	AT TIME OF INTERVIEW	
Total	In Area		In Area	Total
21.4		Educational Services		22.0
	58	University Level	59	
	22	Primary, Secondary, & Kindergarten	22	
	14	Vocational & Trade Schools	13	
	6	Other	6	
	100	(N)=4,078 (N)=4,180	100	
17.2		Government Administration (n.e.c.)		17.9
	43	Government Administration & Regulatory Services	45	
	25	Specialized Technical Services	22	
	12	Management Services	14	
	6	Welfare, Social & Employment Security Services	6	
	14	Other	14	
	100	(N)=3,266 (N)=3,414	100	
16.1		Agriculture, Forestry, & Fisheries		15.2
	22	Crop Production	23	
	22	Agric. & Home Eco. Extension	20	
	18	Livestock	18	
	17	Land & Water Resources	17	
	8	Forestry & Logging	8	
	13	Other	14	
	100	(N)=3,063 (N)=2,888	100	
9.6		Manufacturing & Mining		9.8
	14	Machinery	12	
	14	Primary Metals	13	
	12	Transportation Equipment	11	
	11	Chemicals & Allied Products	13	
	10	Mining & Quarrying	11	
	8	Food & Kindred Products	9	
	31	Other Products, Manufactures	32	
	100	(N)=1,819 (N)=1,866	100	
7.9		Medical Services		7.7
	61	General, Treatment Services & Facilities	62	
	39	Public Health, Preventive	38	
	100	(N)=1,495 (N)=1,473	100	

TABLE 6.4--Continued

AT TIME OF SELECTION		AREA OF ECONOMIC ACTIVITY		AT TIME OF INTERVIEW	
Total	In Area			In Area	Total
6.4		Transportation and Communications			6.5
	34	Air Transportation		36	
	22	Telephone Services		21	
	19	Railway Transport		19	
	10	Communications Media Services		9	
	15	Other		15	
	100	(N)=1,217	(N)=1,243	100	
4.8		Engineering and Construction			4.7
	42	Heavy Construction		38	
	36	Highways and Streets		33	
	22	General Building		29	
	100	(N)=922	(N)=899	100	
3.6		Utilities			3.4
	76	Electricity Distribution		80	
	15	Water Supply		12	
	9	Sanitary Services		8	
	100	(N)=681	(N)=639	100	
3.4		Commerce and Banking			3.8
	63	Banking and Finance		60	
	36	Wholesale and Retail Trade		39	
	1	Insurance and Real Estate		1	
	100	(N)=648	(N)=719	100	
1.5		Labor			1.1
1.0		Community Development			0.9
2.6		All Other (associations, small business)			4.2
4.6		Inactive (students/retired) and Not Ascertained			2.8
100.1		(N)=19,025 Total Participants	(N)=19,025		100.0

From this perspective, we note some clear differences in the "relative gain" of certain sectors, as measured by an index. A few have "attracted" more of those who have shifted than did others. This pattern of differences is moderately correlated with the proportions in each sector who were stable[1] (Table 6.5). When we classify each sector by its location relative to the mean on both measures jointly, certain of them appear to be differentially more or less "attractive" than others. Four sectors have both kept a relatively higher proportion and gained more, on the average, of those who have shifted sectors; education, transportation and communications, manufacturing and mining, and government administration. Two have just as clearly kept fewer and gained fewer adherents, relative to others; labor and community development. The rest of the sectors present a more mixed picture by this mode of classification. (These mobility patterns do not represent changes in employer, but rather shifts in the locus of employment. The government was the principal employer of most; sectoral shifts can thus be viewed mainly as movements between governmental bureaus or ministries.)

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[1] Using a rank-order coefficient (rho), the two measures were found to be correlated .49 in their ordering of these eleven economic sectors.

TABLE 6.5.--CLASSIFICATION OF ECONOMIC SECTORS ON TWO MEASURES OF THE JOB MOBILITY OF PARTICIPANTS

Economic Sector	Per Cent in Same Sector[a]	Index of Relative Gain[b]
Educational services	88.3	55
Transportation and communications	87.9	54
Medical services	86.7	47
Manufacturing and mining	85.5	54
Government administration	84.4	56
Agriculture, forestry & fisheries	83.3	40
Utilities	81.9	40
Commerce and banking	81.4	61
Engineering and construction	79.1	47
Labor	68.2	22
Community development	61.3	43
Total[c]	84.7	50

[a] Proportion of those in each sector at selection who were still in it at interview.

[b] For each sector, the index score is defined as: the number who moved into it, divided by the total who moved into and out of it between the two points in time. Put differently, it is the proportion of gains over the total of its gains and losses. If the score is above the value of 50, then the sector has gained, and if below 50 then it has lost, relative to others, in its net mobility.

[c] Based on participants in these eleven economic sectors; excludes those in other (unnamed) sectors, and inactive or N.A. at selection (N=1367).

The special significance of such patterns must be found by a similar assessment at the country level. This methodology is proposed as one possible way of using available data of an objective sort, drawn from a sample of known character in each country, to discern a strategic datum for planning--an implicit "pecking order" in the occupational choice of its educated elite. If, for example, the resulting patterning of sectors does not correspond with sectoral priorities set in a national plan, then certain special inducements symbolizing greater prestige or better chances for long-term career enhancement may have to be offered to overcome the existing disparity between personal preference and national need.

So far we have been discussing types of occupational mobility among participants whose relationship to training is uncertain or indirect at best. Now we turn to an examination of data on job-changing in which the implications of training are more explicitly considered.

First Job After Training

One of the study's main objectives was to find out if participants had returned to the positions for which they were trained. In principle, before a training program can be approved a need for it must be documented in terms of a particular job the prospective trainee holds or will be called on to fill. Ideally then, the placement of participants after training will have been a settled matter before they depart. Given the realities of programming, and the manifold contingencies that intrude between intention and action however (especially those which beset government officials in underdeveloped countries) one can expect departures from the ideal norm to occur.[1]

Most trainees are selected for training programs relevant to their current jobs, rather than for technical training or education prior to assuming a new one. Therefore, most participants weren't asked directly if they came back to a job they expected to hold; mobility upon return was not expected to be a frequent occurrence. Questions on this topic were posed in the following order:

> Was the first job you had after you returned . . . the same as the job you had before you left for training, or was it different?
> [IF DIFFERENT] Was it the job you had expected to get on your return?
> [IF NOT] In what respects was it different?

Since the latter two questions were asked only of those who ended up in a different job we cannot identify all the logically possible patterns, such as those who expected a different job, but returned nonetheless to their old one.

Over three-quarters (77%) returned to the same job, 14 per cent took a different but expected one and eight per cent experienced an unexpected change in jobs upon their return. If we assume that the first two categories represent trainees who were "placed as planned," then more than nine in ten returned to the jobs for which they were trained. This proportion has varied little (less than 5%) over the years. Younger participants or those lowest in occupational status were placed in unexpected jobs more often than their counterparts. A few sharp differences in the proportion "placed as planned" were revealed when participants were classified by their countries, ranging from Ethiopia's low of 72 per cent to Surinam's high of 95 per cent. But the great majority of countries were bunched closely together on this measure (Table 6.6).

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[1] See Harley Preston, "Operations of the AID Participant Training Program," op. cit., pp. 28-42 and 62-63.

TABLE 6.6.--FIRST JOB UPON RETURN HOME
(SAME OR DIFFERENT) BY COUNTRY
(In Percentages)

Country	First Job on Return			Total (N)[b] (=100%)
	Placed as Planned[a]		Different, Unexpected	
	Same as Before	Different, Expected		
Surinam	72.6	22.0	5.5	(80)
Thailand	75.0	17.6	6.6	(1690)
China (Taiwan)	82.6	9.4	7.0	(1610)
Turkey	82.2	9.1	6.1	(1569)
Israel	80.2	10.0	6.0	(443)
India	78.8	11.0	8.4	(1594)
Jamaica	78.7	10.7	9.9	(122)
Philippines	74.7	14.3	8.5	(1734)
Costa Rica	76.2	12.4	8.4	(504)
Pakistan	76.6	12.1	8.3	(1281)
Nicaragua	64.3	24.1	8.2	(309)
Jordan	53.1	35.1	7.8	(508)
Korea	76.2	11.1	9.9	(1153)
Brazil	76.0	11.6	7.5	(2045)
British Honduras	75.6	10.3	14.1	(101)
Chile	75.4	10.3	9.1	(1153)
Egypt	75.0	10.6	9.7	(434)
British Guiana	67.4	16.5	15.4	(97)
Vietnam	76.6	7.3	16.0	(804)
Greece	67.5	14.2	13.4	(781)
Morocco	59.9	18.3	15.7	(191)
Ecuador	61.5	14.4	12.8	(507)
Ethiopia	46.7	24.9	26.4	(315)
Total	76.9	13.6	8.4	(19025)

[a] Countries are listed in order of the proportion who were (assumedly) placed as planned: the sum of these two columns.

[b] The proportion in each country who were unemployed or N.A. are not shown, but were included in the base for percentages. Their numbers are quite small in all but a few countries, and can be ascertained by adding the three columns above and subtracting the sum from 100%.

An unexpectedly different job can have had a great variety of meanings. Considered from a dual standpoint, that of the person and of the pertinence of his training, the new job could have been better (more favorable), worse (less favorable), or just different. The coded answers were recombined to bring out this distinction, with the following result: 35 per cent said it was a better job (more important, or a regular job, or in the field of training), 29 per cent said it was worse (lower status, not as promised, not in field of training), and the rest gave answers that were not readily definable in such terms (e.g., switched to a different office, to another sector, etc.). From these descriptions we can infer that unexpected job-changing immediately upon return home was at least as often favorable to one's career enhancement or better utilization of training as it was harmful. In all, two to perhaps as many as five per cent of the participants were shunted off or shuttled around after training, to their short-term disadvantage or to the probable detriment of the goals of their program.

Current Job and First Job

A second series of questions dealt with the linkages between the returned participant's first job after training and his current position: was it the same or different, and if the latter, in what respects? After glancing at their answers we will combine them with the earlier set, to yield a classification of patterns of job mobility based upon the three points in time referred to in the questions: at selection, upon return, and currently.

Just over one half (51%) of the participants have changed jobs since their initial placement after training. Almost all of the rest (47%) are still in their posttraining job, while the balance are inactive due to retirement or unemployment. Even more than in the previous instance, changes in jobs were characterized in favorable terms, as promotions or shifts to training-related work. Only a small fraction claimed to have suffered a decline in status or had fewer opportunities to make use of training as a result of their most recent job change (Table 6.7).

On the balance then, job mobility in the wake of training or (especially) since that point has tended to mean a gain in responsibility or status. One rough correlate of this has been the growing proportion of participants who had any subordinates, and the numbers they supervised: at selection 30 per cent had none, and 22 per cent had fifty or more; at interview only 19 per cent had none, while 33 per cent had fifty or more subordinates. With their greater responsibilities and a larger number of people whose work is being supervised, the chances for participants to diffuse the value of their training more widely are increased. (Because of this, we have tended to equate answers indicating mobility into a better job after training with those referring to mobility into work more concordant with training, even though the former is not directly relevant, and may have led to a diminution of opportunity to make use of training. This affinity between some personal career gain resulting from training and its ultimate occupational value or its contribution to national development was discussed previously, and will arise in a later context as well.)

TABLE 6.7.--RELATION OF (NEW) CURRENT JOB TO ONE HELD AFTER TRAINING

Nature of Job		Per Cent
Current job is better, more prestige; more related to training		69
Current job is worse, lower status; not in field of training		3
Current job is different: Changed		28
--from one part of government to another	8.4	
--to different job in same field as before	8.1	
--from government to private sector	5.3	
Other neutral, ambiguous change	6.2	
Total %		100
(N)		(9569)[a]

[a] Total number of participants whose job at interview was different than the one held upon return.

Patterns of Occupational Mobility

Having examined data on each of two links in a chain of potential job-switching, we can fuse them into several patterns which define more clearly the actual job histories of participants. Only two contain sizable numbers who stated their comparisons of jobs across the three points in time in analogous terms. Here is how the participants were distributed among patterns formed out of answers to the two sets of questions analyzed immediately prior to this section (Table 6.8).

TABLE 6.8.--PATTERNS OF OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY: AT SELECTION, RETURN HOME AND NOW (AT INTERVIEW)

	Patterns of Occupational Mobility		Participants
	From Selection to Return Home-- Job Was:	From Return Home to Now-- Job Is:	Per Cent
(1)	Same	Same	37.1
(2)	Same	Different	37.5
(3)	Different (expected)	Same	6.6
(4)	Different (expected)	Different	6.7
(5)	Different (unexpected)	Same	3.0
(6)	Different (unexpected)	Different	6.0
(7)	Unemployed or currently inactive, N.A.		3.0
	Total %		99.9
	(N)		(19025)

We note first that whether participants returned to the same job or a different one, an almost equal proportion has moved at a subsequent point in their careers. Second, while a majority has moved at least once since being selected for training, the two career patterns which reflect the least change are clearly modal for participants: three-quarters of all participants are either still in the same job held at selection, or have shifted only after having returned to it from training. (The full extent of mobility in the latter phase may have been greater than these figures show; some participants, for example, might have changed jobs more than once since their return.) The patterns of occupational mobility can be combined in various ways for analytical purposes; we have chosen the two modal patterns and conserved also the important distinction between participants who went home to a new job, whether expected or not.

The findings in the survey on unemployment can be quickly summarized. In general, an educated elite should infrequently be without work in these underdeveloped countries, viewed from the (wholly rational) standpoint of meeting national needs through proper manpower utilization. Unemployment ought to be even less common among this foreign-trained group; their technical training should, in principle, only increase the already-high scarcity value they have as skilled manpower. However valid this set of theoretical assumptions, in fact these participants have been unemployed infrequently at any point in their posttraining careers. Since returning home only 4 per cent have had any periods of joblessness. A minute fraction (.3%) has never worked, for reasons rarely relating to training; the rest typically were without a job only once, for a (median) period of seven months.

Nor was training an excuse or occasion for handling personnel problems by closing off jobs of those sent on a program, or having them become in some sense unemployable. Only one-quarter of those ever unemployed (one per cent of all participants) drew an explicit connection between their participation in training and their episode of joblessness. The roots of episodic unemployment seem to lie elsewhere. Joblessness was four times more common among those initially placed in an unexpectedly different job than among ones placed as planned (12% vs. 3%). It occurred more frequently among the youngest category of selectees, those who were under 25, than among older age groupings (15% vs. 2-5%). Both of these findings suggest that unemployment was related primarily to normal contingencies early in the careers of participants, rather than signifying any dysfunctions of U. S. training or stigmatization of trainees. (Participants in these categories were likely to shift jobs more often.)

Using the modal patterns of occupational mobility as guides we found that those who were older, less well educated, or with more work experience were mobile less often than others in cognate background categories. (They tended also to go on shorter, less intensive types of programs, and to have been placed as planned more often.) For this kind of participant, training was more likely to have been a refresher course for current work than a crucial requisite for shifts into new work assignments. But, in line with the view that normal career contingencies are the source of much mobility, independent of any effect of training, we observe that the longer the time since the completion of training the greater the occupational mobility. At the extremes, of those back less than one year 58 per cent had never changed jobs, while 17 per cent had already switched between placement and interview; of those back seven or more years only 21 per cent had never changed jobs, while 51 per cent changed jobs after returning to the same one. Thus, as expected, the passage of time is closely related to rates of job-changing, and must be taken into consideration when ascribing some net balance of career consequences of training for the participants (Table 6.9). Other factors, such as rates of economic growth (or its opposite, stagnation) in each country, undoubtedly affected the opportunities of their participants to change jobs. We have no data on such "system-level" variables to test their differential influence on occupational mobility.

TABLE 6.9.--PATTERNS OF OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY BY TIME SINCE COMPLETION OF TRAINING (In Percentages)

Pattern of Occupational Mobility[a]	Time Back Since Training			
	Less Than 2 Years	Two to 3 Years	Three to 5 Years	Five Years and Over
(1) No change since selection	52.0	45.1	36.5	25.2
(2) Returned to same job, changed since	22.8	30.3	40.8	48.5
(3,4) Returned to new (expected) job	14.2	13.5	13.0	13.1
(5,6) Returned to new (unexpected) job	8.4	8.4	7.0	10.0
(7) Unemployed, N.A.	2.5	2.8	2.7	3.3
Total[b] %	99.9	100.1	100.0	100.1
(N)	(3909)	(3654)	(4632)	(6701)

[a] Patterns are numbered in conformity with Table 6.8, which shows their derivation.

[b] Excludes those who were N.A. on time back (N=29).

Value of Training to Career

So far, we have dealt with occupational data of a factual character, analyzing their implications for job mobility of participants and for the role of training. The participants were asked directly to give a subjective appraisal of what training has meant to them in career terms: "Suppose you had not gone on this training program? What kind of job do you think you would have now? [Better, worse, about the same?]" The answers they gave constitute important evidence about one consequence or "output" of training. By this criterion training was seen as neutral or, on balance, favorable, rather than detrimental to the careers of the participants. As was foreshadowed in our analysis of mobility among status levels,[1] a clear majority (62%) felt they would be in about the same job, had they not gone for training. But five times as many felt they were now better off as thought they were now worse off, because of their training (26% vs. 5%); the remaining 7 per cent couldn't say. (Those unemployed or inactive weren't asked this question.)

These judgments were closely correlated with a number of personal and program attributes, notably the age of trainees at selection, and with what has actually happened to them in the aftermath of training. The younger the participant was, the more often was training rated as helpful (rather than irrelevant) to his career (Table 6.10). Age is of course a fundamental consideration in participant training, as we have seen. On it depends in no small part the program type and length of training which will be given participants, with their correlates or by-products. Older participants, for example, went on brief tours far more often; by contrast, younger trainees were sent to universities, or combined university work with some practical on-job training. Not surprisingly, then, the latter two types of programs were assessed in more favorable terms than the former, and programs in which a trainee earned a degree were rated as career-enhancing more often than any. This finding substantiates our analysis of the potential significance of a degree program for the careers of participants.[2] In a related vein, training in the more highly professionalized fields, such as health or education, was rated as helpful to the careers of its professionals more often, while in fields like labor and trade unions it was quite commonly seen as irrelevant.

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[1] See above, pp. 158-161.

[2] See above, pp. 23-25 and 100-107.

TABLE 6.10.--THE CAREER VALUE OF TRAINING
BY AGE OF PARTICIPANTS AT SELECTION
(In Percentages)

Career Value Without Training Job Now Would Be:	Age at Selection				Total
	Under 30 Years	Thirty to 39 Years	Forty to 49 Years	Fifty Years and Over	
Worse (training helped)	36	26	21	14	26
About the same	50	62	70	77	62
Better (training hurt)	6	5	4	4	5
Can't say, don't know	8	7	5	5	7
Total[a] %	100	100	100	100	100
(N)	(4905)	(7837)	(4470)	(1006)	(18218)

[a] Excludes those who were unemployed or N.A. on either variable (N=807).

These preconditions or correlates were matched in importance by the actual patterns of job-changing which have characterized the careers of participants. We can expect those who haven't changed jobs since selection to rate their training as unimportant to their careers. By similar reasoning, the answers of those who came back to an (expected) new job for which training had prepared them ought to reflect the crucial role of training in their careers. These hypotheses are strongly confirmed by the data; in the latter case, more actually said training was helpful than irrelevant (Table 6.11). The length of time participants had been back, a factor in the sheer amount of mobility that has taken place, is also directly associated with judgments of a training program's career value. The longer they had been back the greater the proportion of participants who assessed training in positive terms, as helpful to their careers.

In sum, for one group of participants who have gained career advantages from training, the help it has provided has been marginal but noticeable over a span of years. For others, training supplied a strong initial momentum to their careers which has, in the course of time, resulted in an even more favorable set of job outcomes. For a majority, however, training has had no special career impact at all.

The proportion of one in twenty who claimed that training had been a positive detriment to their careers hardly varied, no matter which subgroup comparisons were made, with one exception. Those who were initially not placed as planned were twice as likely as others to have made such a negative appraisal of the impact of training. Almost a third of this group had characterized their unexpected shift in jobs as being a loss in status or a worse job, as we saw earlier. Thus, the initial placement of participants had consequences which have shaped their careers years later. What remains to be documented is the relationship between the personal gains or losses resulting from training and the uses to which it is put. The latter is the primary goal toward which participant training is directed. The question of the compatibility of the two, touched on at several points in this report, will be resolved in the final part of this chapter.

TABLE 6.11.--THE CAREER VALUE OF TRAINING BY PATTERNS OF OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY OF PARTICIPANTS

Pattern of Occupational Mobility[a]	Career Value--Without Training Job Now Would Be: (In Percentages)				Total[b] (N) (=100%)
	Worse	About the Same	Better	Can't Say	
(1) No change since selection	12	81	4	4	(7024)
(2) Returned to same job, changed since	32	56	4	8	(7096)
(3,4) Returned to new (expected) job	48	37	5	10	(2526)
(5,6) Returned to new (unexpected) job	30	46	11	13	(1720)
Total	26	62	5	7	(18366)

[a] Patterns are numbered in conformity with Table 6.8, which shows their derivation.

[b] Excludes those who were unemployed or N.A. on either variable (N=659).

The Organizational Setting: Relations With Supervisor

The work milieu of a returned participant presents itself as a melange of physical, social and cultural facts with which he must contend in seeking to use his training. For example, scarcity of material resources or other physical features of his organizational setting set limits upon the scope of his efforts. Then, it is at the workplace that cultural values affecting the reception and adoption of new ideas and practices find concrete expression. And no participant, however well motivated or superbly equipped by training can achieve much in the face of apathy or hostility among his work associates, including in particular his supervisor, or if he works in an organization whose norms and practices are inhospitable or resistant to change. Factors such as these have been shown to bear crucially upon the acceptance and diffusion of innovations; they apply with particular force to attempts at planned change through technical assistance.[1]

Despite the wealth of information on jobs held by the participants few data were collected which could be used to delineate the character of their occupational settings as contexts for innovation. (This was a byproduct of the survey's focus on the individual participant, rather than his social context.) Only two "organizational" aspects were touched on, both having to do with the support available to a trainee in his work milieu: from others indirectly, if they have also been trained abroad (especially his supervisor), and from his supervisor directly in helping him to use his training at work. To put it differently, does it made a difference to the outcomes of training if a participant is the only foreign-trained person in his group or if he shares with others at his workplace the imprint of having been trained abroad? In theory, an exposure to modernizing norms and practices through foreign training can create a deeper commitment to innovation, and their common or shared experience could serve as a basis for developing mutually supportive relationships among those who have been trained abroad. They might form a "community of innovators," helping each other to find ways of translating their new skills and ideas into practice, and bringing about organizational change to facilitate development. From this perspective, the participant who is unique in his foreign training might be thereby estranged from his work colleagues. Further, since such an experience is prestige-conferring, especially if a degree was acquired during it, others at his work place might develop resentments or jealousies. In either case, a returned participant would be hampered or blocked in his role as an agent of change, since he would find less support from others on whom his effectiveness ultimately depends. Conversely, to the extent that such support, induced by foreign training, is available to him from others a returned participant's own innovative efforts are likely to be far more productive.

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[1] Three reviews can serve as useful introductions to the extensive literature of the diffusion of innovation. See Everett M. Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations (New York: Free Press, 1962), especially Chapters III and IX; Elihu Katz, et al., "Traditions of Research on the Diffusion of Innovation," Amer. Sociological Review, Vol. 28, No. 2 (April, 1963), pp. 237-252; Bernard J. Siegel, "Some Recent Developments in Studies of Social and Cultural Change," in Annals of Amer. Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 363 (January 1966), pp. 137-153. See also H. G. Barnett, Innovation: The Basis of Cultural Change (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1953) for an earlier theoretical synthesis.

On technical assistance programs two issues of the Annals which bracket the time period covered by this evaluation study provide valuable discussions of organizational and administrative aspects. See Halford Hoskins (ed.), "Aiding Underdeveloped Areas Abroad," Annals of Amer. Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 268 (March 1950); and Richard W. Gable (ed.), "Partnership for Progress: International Technical Co-operation," Annals of Amer. Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 323 (May 1959). Two often-quoted works deserve mention in this context: Margaret Mead (ed.), Cultural Patterns and Technical Change (New York: New American Library, 1955); and Edward H. Spicer (ed.), Human Problems in Technological Change (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1952). A recent collection of papers prepared under governmental auspices for a U. N. conference provides much apposite material. See Science, Technology and Development: United States Papers Prepared for the United Nations Conference on the Application of Science and Technology for the Benefit of the Less Developed Areas. In Twelve Volumes (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1963); especially Vol. X--International Cooperation and Problems of Transfer and Adaptation, and Vol. XI--Human Resources--Training of Scientific and Technical Personnel.

This line of reasoning and inference applies with equal or greater force to the work supervisor and his own past experience with foreign study or training, since he occupies a position of pivotal importance for organizational change.[1] The consequences of his withholding of support or assistance to a participant who seeks to make good use of his technical training are obvious. If trained abroad, and thereby made more development-minded, the supervisor can be supposed to be more likely to encourage his subordinates in their attempts to bring about needed changes or be seen by them as helpful in such efforts. Thus, any factors (such as foreign training) affecting a supervisor's attitudes or actions with respect to participant training have great significance for its ultimate success as a mode of technical assistance.

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[1] The role of the supervisor in securing an advance commitment on the placement and use of participants, which is a partial indicator of a "prepared environment" or organizational setting favorable to change was discussed earlier. See above, pp. 56-58.

The survey question did not refer to AID-sponsored training solely: it covered ". . . anyone with whom you work who has been trained abroad." The findings are, therefore, sizably affected by historical traditions of sending students abroad for advanced training which exist in various former colonies, or countries such as Thailand. Roughly two-thirds of the participants are now working in an organizational setting with others who have been trained abroad, and more than two in five have a supervisor who was foreign-trained or educated; the proportions in each setting or context vary sharply by country of origin of the participants (Table 6.12).

TABLE 6.12.--ORGANIZATIONAL SETTING OF PARTICIPANTS (ANYONE TRAINED ABROAD) BY COUNTRY

Country	Organizational Setting: (In Percentages)			Total[b] (N) (=100%)
	Someone Trained Abroad		No One Trained Abroad[a]	
	Supervisor of Participant	Other Coworker(s)		
Thailand	81	11	8	(505)
Nicaragua	76	16	8	(173)
Jamaica	67	20	13	(121)
British Guiana	59	21	20	(80)
Jordan	67	10	23	(248)
Philippines	54	22	24	(495)
Turkey	43	32	25	(1201)
Vietnam	55	16	29	(368)
Egypt	35	35	30	(216)
Korea	45	24	31	(499)
Pakistan	52	16	32	(582)
China (Taiwan)	37	31	32	(618)
Surinam	41	26	33	(73)
India	42	25	33	(1272)
Greece	28	35	37	(313)
Costa Rica	47	15	38	(368)
Ethiopia	24	34	42	(183)
British Honduras	41	16	43	(77)
Chile	21	36	43	(356)
Brazil	19	36	44	(470)
Ecuador	11	39	50	(386)
Morocco	29	18	53	(143)
Israel	17	25	58	(363)
Total	43	25	32	(9110)

[a] Includes those who were unemployed or "don't know" (less than 3% of total).

[b] Excludes those not trained in their occupational specialty (who weren't asked the question; see Appendix A, pp. 269-272) and N.A. (N=588). Results are based on unweighted number of participants interviewed in each country.

By status, those at the lowest occupational levels (foremen, artisans and workers) are far more likely to be unique in their overseas training. Among economic sectors, those in the private sector or labor are least often working for someone trained abroad, while those in education or in public utilities have foreign-trained coworkers more often than others. More than half of the latter two groups work for a supervisor with foreign training, as do those now in community development. Participants returned more recently (less than two years) are more apt to be working for someone with foreign training than those returned earlier from their training programs. (This finding may reflect a cumulative effect of participant training, as earlier participants move into supervisory positions.)

The relationship of this contextual factor to the utilization of training by participants will be traced below. Its link with the other "organizational" aspect for which we have data--how helpful a supervisor was adjudged--is noteworthy and potentially strategic. Almost half (47%) of their supervisors were rated as "very helpful" by participants in response to the question: "Your supervisor on your current job--does he help you in utilizing that training?" But supervisors who were trained abroad earned higher ratings more often than those who were not; conversely, the latter were adjudged indifferent or distinctly not helpful twice as often as the former by participants (Table 6.13).

TABLE 6.13.--SUPERVISOR'S HELPFULNESS IN USING TRAINING (RATING OF PARTICIPANT) BY HIS FOREIGN TRAINING
(In Percentages)

Supervisor's Help in Using Training		Supervisor Trained Abroad[a]			Total
		Yes	No (Coworker Trained Abroad)	No (No One Trained Abroad)	
Very helpful		54	44	34	47
Somewhat helpful		27	26	26	26
Indifferent		9	13	17	12
Not helpful		10	17	23	15
Total[b]	%	100	100	100	100
	(N)	(7661)	(3576)	(3883)	(15120)

[a] Same variable as "organizational setting" shown in Table 6.12, but with its focus on a different aspect, and based on weighted replies by participants.

[b] Excludes those with no supervisor; or who were not trained in their work specialty, or N.A. (N=3905).

The reasons for this empirical relationship cannot be explored further with the data at hand. It could well be a topic or part of a wider inquiry into cultural and social structural factors affecting the utilization of technical training, or organizational networks for the spread of modernizing ideas and practices. But this finding is consistent with an earlier suggestion that foreign training of others in one's work milieu can have favorable consequences for innovative efforts. And the strategic significance of the supervisor--the tone-setter and authority-wielder at one's workplace--is again underlined. As noted earlier,[1] a deliberate policy of selecting supervisory level people first or along with several subordinates for participant training could pay cumulative dividends if a more favorable environment for change could thereby be produced. Other measures of a supervisor's relationship with his returned foreign-trained subordinate also show the benefits derived from his deeper involvement in the whole training process. The more active he was in programming and selecting a participant, the more likely was he to demonstrate an interest in the nature of the participant's program after his return. And supervisors who did either were rated as helpful more often by participants, as were those who interacted with returned trainees more often or over longer periods of time. The common image underlying these disparate findings is that of the "engaged supervisor," one who bends his effort to make a subordinate's training program a success both early and late.

The U. S. Mission: Follow-Up and Assistance

Another potential source of assistance to returned participants in their work setting is the U. S. Mission, the original channel for their programs of technical training. As an institution and through its technical advisors USOM can provide direct moral and material support, and indirectly through its policies and projects it can exert some leverage to facilitate the development efforts of participants. The importance of reaching out to "follow-up" on U. S. assistance programs has been increasingly recognized, especially in the case of participant training; not only to measure the results of development work, but also to show a continuing interest in those it sent for special training, to identify the conditions affecting the successful transfer of skills and knowledge which they acquired, and to give assistance wherever possible. Follow-up activities take many forms, with personal contacts usually being favored by everyone. (As was recognized at its inception, this evaluation survey was itself a form of follow-up, especially in the case former trainees who had long been lost to view at the Mission level.)

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[1] See above, pp. 147-148.

How often do participants come in contact with the Mission in their country after their return, whether as part of work on a U. S.-assisted project, through some follow-up activity, or in some other way? Earlier we reviewed data on their work contacts with USOM prior to training, and found a majority to have had none.[1] Their subsequent patterns of association are quite congruent with their previous ones. For example, while over half (57%) of the participants have had some sort of contacts with USOM since their return, the numbers who have done so and the character (work-related or not) of their contacts varied sharply with their pretraining association with the Mission. Those who worked for or with USOM previously tend to have done so subsequently; those with more casual contacts have continued them; and a substantial proportion of those with no previous contacts have maintained their isolated status (Table 6.14).

TABLE 6.14.--POSTPROGRAM CONTACTS WITH USOM BY WORK CONTACTS OF PARTICIPANTS PRIOR TO TRAINING
(In Percentages)

Postprogram Contacts With USOM	Prior Work Contacts With USOM			Total
	Worked for/with USOM	Had Any Other Contacts	Had No Previous Contacts	
Worked for/with USOM	61	21	11	23
Any contact with USOM	14	51	35	34
No contacts at all	25	28	54	43
Total[a] %	100	100	100	100
(N)	(4001)	(3426)	(11354)	(18781)

[a] Excludes N.A. on either variable (N=244).

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[1] See above, pp. 58-60.

At both pre- and postprogram stages those in professional, technical and middle-level administrative positions were more closely linked with the Mission in work relationships. These contacts occurred presumably in their capacity as employees, or counterparts, or future development project personnel. Those at the highest status levels also have had a high level of contacts, but not as often in a work-related capacity. Those in the public sector, working in agriculture, community development, health and education have had more extensive contacts with USOM, reflecting no doubt the great resources in money and manpower which the U. S. has devoted to these areas.

There remains a substantial segment (43%) of returned participants who do not seem to have been involved further with U. S. aid efforts after completing training. In fact, one-third of all participants said they had no contacts with USOM either prior to their training or subsequently. Among those overrepresented in this group are trainees from the private sector or labor (who tended to be selected differently, as noted earlier), those at the lowest levels of occupational status (foremen, artisans, workers), and those who claim not to have a U. S. technician available to them. This last observation is a crucial one; the factor most closely associated with such subsequent contacts is the sheer availability of a U. S. technician. If they were available to participants, contacts invariably occurred; where none was seen as available, few Mission contacts were registered. Over-all, a majority of participants (62%) said there was no U. S. technician available to them (Table 6.15).

The principal determinant of their availability is of course the scope of U. S. programs in certain fields in the host countries. But there are a few subtler influences at work too. The U. S. technicians who were interviewed were asked about things that might have interfered with their follow-up contacts with specific returned participants. In over half of the cases (57%) they indicated that nothing interfered. What seems to have been the main reason for lack of contacts was the location of the participant's job; this was particularly true of those in provincial centers, rather than the capital of their countries or rural areas. Another reason cited by a sizable number of technicians was their work load, the numbers of participants for which they were responsible. Those working in economic areas in the private sector and labor made this complaint more often than others.

A scattering of other reasons were offered, such as the language barrier, or a participant's lack of initiative or personality, or some political or organizational problem. It was also true that the more important a participant's job was held to be for economic development the more likely was a technician to say that "nothing" interfered. Given a need to choose whom to work with intensively, they tended to focus upon those they defined as more strategic for development. Other data on how frequently they were in contact with these participants show parallel findings: those in provincial city areas, or whose jobs are viewed as less central to economic development are seen less often, if at all.

TABLE 6.15.--AVAILABILITY OF A U. S. TECHNICIAN TO PARTICIPANT (AND FREQUENCY OF CONTACT) BY POSTPROGRAM CONTACTS WITH USOM
(In Percentages)

Availability of a U. S. Technician (And Contact)	Postprogram Contacts With USOM			Total
	Worked for/with USOM	Had Any USOM Contacts	Had No USOM Contacts	
U. S. Technician Available				
Frequent contact	45	18	4	18
Occasional contact	23	22	9	17
Never met him	1	3	4	3
No U. S. Technician Available	31	57	83	62
Total[a] %	100	100	100	100
(N)	(4397)	(6335)	(8203)	(18935)

[a] Excludes N.A. on either variable (N=90).

Other forms of follow-up activities were explored, apart from the main one of personal contacts. Membership in U. S. professional societies are encouraged, primarily as a means of keeping participants up to date on developments in their field. As a side effect, such memberships can stimulate or strengthen their sense of identification with their profession and contribute to a desire to improve their performance. More generally, the scientific professions tend to be powerful forces for modernization. Heightened commitments to one's profession can counteract the pull of personal interests on the participants, and keep the goal of national development salient; their energies can be mobilized effectively through appeals directed at their professional identity. Over a quarter (28%) had joined a U. S. professional society, most of whom still hold memberships. Half of the total group receive some U. S. professional publication, the vast majority of whom find it useful to do so. As expected, the main determinant of the latter kind of follow-up is the former--membership in a professional society which carries with it a subscription to its journal. But while 94 per cent of currently active members receive some U. S. professional publication, almost two-fifths of those who never joined nevertheless subscribe to one, and find their publication no less useful.

In general, the problem of follow-up, as revealed in these data, is one of limited numbers of available U. S. personnel. Personal contacts, which the technicians themselves acknowledge as the most effective form of follow-up with returned participants, can only be pursued more earnestly by augmenting their ranks to overcome the geographic spread of former trainees, especially to reach beyond the capital cities in each country, and by reducing the work load to make it possible for them to see more participants more often.

As a final measure of the posttraining relationship between USOM and the returned participants they were asked about the help they had requested, and what the Mission's response to their requests had been. Here, too, one encounters a relatively small volume of transactions between them: seven out of nine participants have never asked for any form of assistance from USOM. The minority who had were given a chance to describe three such requests, and to tell how much of the hoped-for assistance actually was received. Their answers only compound the feeling of lost opportunities on both sides. For, 65 per cent of all requests which were made were fully satisfied by USOM, and another 15 per cent were at least partially met. The substance of the requests varied, but in the main they were for equipment, advice, money or publications (Table 6.16).

By field of training and by current occupational status the proportions who requested help (and received it) followed the now-familiar pattern for contacts with USOM in general. Those in higher level jobs, or in the fields of agriculture, health, education or community development--the more "professionalized" fields--were more likely to call upon the Mission for help. A small irony is that the fewer low status participants who did seek assistance were less likely to have gotten it in full measure than their more favored colleagues. Thus, status is directly associated with requests for help from and granting of assistance by USOM: the higher the status of the participant the more of either. This was presumably due in part to the technician's estimation of their jobs as being more or less important for national economic development.

TABLE 6.16.--FORMS OF ASSISTANCE REQUESTED BY PARTICIPANTS FROM U. S. MISSION SINCE TRAINING

		Per Cent
Have Not Requested Help From USOM		78
Requested Help From USOM		22
Requested:		
Equipment, machinery, material	38	
Technical advice, information on some problem	34	
Financial assistance	21	
Printed material, books, pamphlets	20	
Assistance in training staff members	8	
Training grants for others	7	
Audiovisual aids	4	
Additional training grant for myself	4	
Assistance in securing a job	3	
Other assistance	10	
	149%[a]	
Total %		100
(N)		(19025)

[a] Percentages are based on the 4159 respondents who requested assistance from USOM. They add to more than 100% because of multiple requests.

In reviewing the pattern of association between USOM and returned participants a few general points emerge from the data. The Mission's role as a potential source of support for them as they seek to use their training is hardly being discharged to good effect. Follow-up is relatively infrequent, advice or assistance are rarely available or requested, and work- or project-related contacts are not as widespread as one would expect, given the focus of participant training upon project needs as a basis for programming. Many participants "disappear" from view, and are thus unaware of the kinds of help they can get from the Mission, or are unable to find a way to do so. Contacts are more frequent and fruitful with higher level or professional participants or in relation to "professionalized" areas, such as agriculture, education and health. Perhaps if the activities of the Mission were viewed as "follow-through" on its heavy investments of the past rather than "follow-up" of individuals on a spasmodic, hit-or-miss basis the full value of the Mission's presence and influence would be realized in a greater proportion of cases. But the central problem of limited manpower for such tasks must be faced and resolved. Contacts with and calls upon USOM for assistance are a function of the perceived availability of a U. S. advisor. Without this personal link many returned participants might be loath to approach the Mission directly on their own. The fact that most requests were met in whole or in part by the Mission indicates how much potential help is being foregone by most returned participants, leading in turn to lower levels of posttraining utilization, as we will show.

In this section we have sought to establish some salient facts about the "environment" in which these participants try to make use of their technical training. Their occupational history, their supervisor's attitudes, their work setting, and the pattern of contacts with the Mission are all viewed as concurrent and critical influences upon the success with which their efforts are met. How important they prove to be, in themselves and in comparison with other factors such as the character of the participants or the kinds of programs they took will be the subject of the remainder of this chapter.

Patterns of Utilization

Many of the variables examined so far have an analytical significance, in addition to their usefulness in describing the operations of participant training or in evaluating its aspects. We can explore the relationships between variables such as age or status of participants, or types of programs, or sentiments with respect to training, or aspects of their current work setting and the participants' achievements since their return. From such data we can arrive at an estimate of the relative importance of these personal and situational factors to a program's effectiveness.

The Effective Program

The use of training by participants is the principal but not the sole criterion of its effectiveness. What constitutes an "effective" program of training, from the standpoint of its consequences as well as its administration, will vary with the detailed objectives for which individuals undertook technical training. A few generally relevant hallmarks or part-definitions of program effectiveness can be specified, however, based on ten direct and indirect measures of "output" contained in the survey. They are of two main types: actions or subsequent experiences of participants, and attitudes or opinions about training held by them or others.[1] (The first six of these criteria of program effectiveness have been discussed previously and will only be briefly recalled in this context, along with some interpretive remarks.)

Ideally then, a training program's effectiveness can be assessed by whether a participant:

1) completes his program (96% do so);
2) returns home to be placed in an appropriate job (91% were, at a minimum);
3) has remained continuously employed since training (96% have been).

These are in fact preconditions for effectiveness. The first guarantees that a participant's program was minimally in accord with the original intent of his selectors, rather than being truncated and of indeterminate scope. The second and third are necessary but not sufficient conditions for creating a meaningful link between the substance of a participant's training and its concrete and continued relevance for his work.

4) Judges his program as satisfactory (92% rated it as "very" or "moderately" so);
5) judges it as having been important to him (66% rated it as "one of the most important things" they had ever done, vs. 1% who termed it a "waste of time"--the rest were in between).

These are two global appraisals of the subjective impact of training, as participants viewed it in retrospect. Such opinions are resultants not of their programs alone, but also of what has happened to them subsequently. Nevertheless, one can reasonably expect an effective program to induce positive sentiments of this kind, as byproducts if not as direct effects. Other indirect measures which tap the domain of attitudinal effects could also be cited, such as a participant's expressed criticisms of his program, or any suggestions for changes he made. The two we have listed seem adequate as indicators of one important class of program effects; as such, they are significant for an appraisal of a program's over-all effectiveness.[1]

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[1] All data on the consequences of training were derived from interviews. Their inherently subjective character cannot be disregarded, nor can problems of reliability and validity associated with such measures be easily overcome. Some checks on the free play of subjectivity in their replies are possible, and will be noted subsequently.

6) Has derived career benefits from training rather than having been penalized by his attendance (26% felt their job is better vs. 5% who felt it was worse, as a result of training--the rest adjudged it irrelevant).

Getting a better job as a direct result of training is in most cases a bonus or byproduct rather than an intended objective. But to have one's career actually suffer because of his training can hardly be seen as contributing to its ultimate utility. A program which acts in boomerang fashion to hurt those it sought to help has negative implications with respect to its effectiveness.

The six hallmarks of an effective program listed so far are important from an over-arching perspective, but secondary to the major standard for judging the consequences of training: how well the participant has been able to make use of the skills and ideas he acquired during his program. The ultimate test of a program's worth, apart from the personal sentiments it engenders, is its transferability to a returned participant's work on development projects. Four additional survey items can be used to assess this vital outcome; a program can be seen as effective if a participant:

7) has made good use of his training;
8) has conveyed aspects of his training to others;
9) has definite plans for some future use;
10) can specify the role of training in some noteworthy action he has taken since returning home.

Data on these direct measures of effectiveness will be presented separately, and then they will be interrelated in a final analytical part of the chapter.

Uses of Training: At Work and Conveying to Others

The "criterion problem" has long haunted the conduct of research on the effects of complex programs of social action, especially in the evaluation of education or training programs. What are the proper standards or objectives, and which techniques for measuring results in terms of these standards are feasible and appropriate? Most studies settle on a variety of indicators, based on information obtained from several sources.[1] This was the path followed in the present study: use was ascertained primarily from various answers given by participants at several places in the interview, and further verification was sought when possible in interviews with their work supervisors and U. S. technicians.

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[1] An index which combines these two will be used as a potential correlate of utilization by participants. See below, pp. 218-220.

Several direct questions on use were posed to currently employed participants near the end of the interview, the first set being preceded by a lengthy introductory comment:

> Thinking now of the skills, techniques or knowledge that participants learn during their training programs--a good many participants tell us they are not actually using much of what they learned in their usual work. How about you personally? In your current job, have you ever been able to use any of the skills or knowledge that you learned on the program we have been discussing?
>
> [If Yes] Would you say you have used practically none, only a little, some, quite a bit or almost everything?

By leading into the topic of utilization with these negative and low-pressure phrases a signal is given to the participant that if for some reason he hasn't used his training he isn't alone, nor would he shock or disappoint anyone in admitting it. In this fashion, some hesitation on the part of beneficiaries of training in reporting on "failure" to their benefactors can be overcome; frankness can be encouraged by stating in advance that such a negative outcome is expected and permissible. Their responses to these two questions are given below in a combined form. From these reports a rather substantial return on the investment in their training is being realized: just over one half have made substantial use and another quarter made at least some use of their training; the rest have done little or nothing with it (Table 6.17).

This mode of direct questioning was followed again in ascertaining whether participants have conveyed aspects of their training to others. Passing on the benefits of their experience is accorded an importance as an outcome of training second only to the application of training at work. The value of every participant's program will be multiplied many times over if he assumes a teaching or training role for others upon his return. His own chances of making good use of training can be greatly enhanced by the success with which he communicates to them both substance and rationale for the skills and ideas he acquired abroad. Thus, conveying the lessons of one's training to others results in direct and collateral benefits; this augmentation of gains is usually termed the "multiplier effect" of assistance through training.

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[1] The best general reference on the application of systematic research techniques in evaluating action programs is Herbert H. Hyman, Charles R. Wright and Terence K. Hopkins, Applications of Methods of Evaluation (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1962), especially Chapter One. Three other reviews with a focus upon international assistance programs provide further discussion and bibliography. See Samuel P. Hayes, Jr., Measuring the Results of Development Projects (UNESCO, 1959); Hollis W. Peter and Edwin R. Henry, "Measuring Successful Performance Overseas," International Development Review, Vol. III, No. 3 (Oct. 1961), pp. 8-12; Albert E. Gollin, Evaluating Programs and Personnel Overseas (New York: Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, February 1963).

TABLE 6.17.--EXTENT OF USE OF TRAINING BY PARTICIPANTS IN THEIR CURRENT JOB

Extent of Use at Work	Per Cent
Almost everything	20.2
Quite a bit	31.6
Some	23.2
Only a little	8.8
None, practically none	12.9
N.A. or inactive (unemployed)	3.3[a]
Total %	100.0
(N)	(19025)

[a] Currently inactive participants were 2.6% of the total.

All participants, whether currently employed or not, were asked the following:

> Now I'd like to ask about whether or not you have conveyed to other people the things you learned on that program. Have you been able to convey any of what you learned in the program to other people?
>
> [If Yes] About how much of this training have you been able to transmit to other people--practically none, only a little, some, quite a bit, or almost everything?

Again the question wording was slanted away from the expectation that everyone must have found it possible to engage in this kind of activity. But in fact, most participants did claim to have communicated some of their training to others. By contrast with their use at work, fewer said they had done little or nothing (Table 6.18).

TABLE 6.18.--EXTENT TO WHICH PARTICIPANT HAS CONVEYED TRAINING TO OTHERS

Extent Conveyed to Others	Per Cent
Almost everything	16.3
Quite a bit	35.9
Some	29.7
Only a little	9.8
None, practically none	8.1
N.A.	.3
Total %	100.1
(N)	(19025)

To specify this "two-step flow" of technical assistance[1] still further, those who responded affirmatively were asked how they went about conveying to others. The major channels they used (and more than one channel was mentioned by over two-thirds) were: informal discussions (75%); formal lectures or training programs (65%); articles or other published works (35%); and on-the-job training of others (20%). Interestingly, those at higher status levels laid greater stress on their formal training roles, while engineers or lower level supervisory personnel mentioned informal discussions or (practical) on-job training more often.

Data from the work supervisors of almost half of the participants are available for comparison, and they largely corroborate these latter findings. The empirical correspondence between the two on the fact of conveying is quite high: almost seven out of eight (86%) participants' self-descriptions were in accord with observations made by supervisors about them on whether or not they have conveyed some information acquired in training to others. Further, the supervisors also emphasized the same four channels for communicating such information; they observed participants making relatively greater use of formal programs, putting it first in frequency of mention, rather than informal discussions. An appreciable number referred to the participants' provision of instruction or demonstrations of new equipment or methods as another variant mode of transmitting their training, one containing elements of formal and informal techniques. (More detailed comparisons between the two groups are not possible, since the available code categories for these data are broad and only roughly equivalent.)

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[1] The "two step flow of communication" is a notion devised originally in research on mass media and consumer behavior. It involves the transmission of a message from a medium to a strategic group of intermediaries ("opinion leaders"), who then pass it on to a wider public. We are suggesting that this model can be usefully applied in this context, to describe the wider spread of the benefits of participant training. See Elihu Katz and Paul F. Lazarsfeld, Personal Influence (Glencoe: Free Press, 1955).

The evidence of these findings suggests that the "multiplier effect" of participant training can be improved by efforts directed at providing additional formally structured opportunities to participants to pass on the benefits of foreign training to others. Helping them (on occasion in the literal sense) to find platforms for such instructional efforts would be an effective way of building upon practices already being employed by many participants. The U. S. Mission can be especially helpful in providing returned participants with the means to share their new skills and ideas, through locally coordinated or sponsored training programs, refresher courses, workshops, etc., giving them the key leadership roles in these group sessions. By calling upon them to train others the Mission might in part also stimulate former participants to renewed efforts in their own work settings.

Ultimately it might prove feasible (or preferable) to shift most of the task of providing training for later cadres for development work to the returned participants, when their numbers in individual countries grow large enough to support such a policy alternative. The thrust of U. S. assistance could be redirected toward building up the local facilities and educational institutions they would need to carry out such an enlarged and formalized tutorial role. (This is one way in which a phased strategy of educational assistance can contribute to the process whereby human resources development becomes self-sustaining at the local level.) If the "multiplier" concept is sound, as the data seem to indicate, then aid policies which provide firmer and greater institutional support for the spread of modern skills, ideas and practices would seem to be a logical next step, in consolidating the gains already being realized in a more inconsistent way.

Difficulties in Using Training

The two ways in which training can have been used effectively by participants are both affected by certain problems or difficulties. One is a motivational problem:

a participant may not wish to use his training, or feel no compelling need to try, or--having made an effort--give up trying. The survey contains nothing on this class of influences on the utilization process. (One possible indicator of a participant's motivational state is whether he plans to use his training; while not a direct measure of determination, this item gets at a personal expectation closely related to it. We will discuss this shortly.) A second personal attribute is the skill or ingenuity with which a participant seeks to use his newly acquired technical competence and knowledge, an attribute which would presumably be closely linked with his general motivation. As noted, however, data on such attributes are lacking; an implicit assumption underlying the study design seems to have been that this class of influences on the outcomes of training was not problematic.[1] Future research with participants might usefully test this assumption, in exploring the reciprocal effects of personality and training.

The participants were asked about the major difficulties encountered in their efforts to make use of training. The available categories of answers are at a fairly general level; individual country reports on the survey contain quotations from participants which provide graphic illustrations of frustration or disappointment. But these data are instructive nonetheless; they constitute a useful catalogue of barriers and hurdles encountered in bringing about change, and indicate what can go awry in the aftermath of training. First, just over one-quarter (27%) asserted that they had met no difficulties "in using skills . . . or in conveying them to others." The rest of the participants were able to identify one or more difficulties (Table 6.19).

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[1] Fragmentary data on assessments by U. S. technicians of the "personality attributes" of participants failed to show any serious problems in utilizing training arising from this class of factors. See above, p. 151.

TABLE 6.19.--MAJOR DIFFICULTIES IN USING TRAINING: AT WORK OR CONVEYING TO OTHERS

Major Difficulty	Per Cent
Resources or General Conditions	
Lack of equipment, material, transport	35
Lack of money	25
General conditions (government, society) not amenable	16
Organizational Factors	
Leadership (minister, department head) uncooperative, resist new ideas	10
Lack of trained staff	9
Colleagues, others resist new ideas	8
Clients, colleagues lack educational preparation	8
Supervisor unhelpful, unsympathetic	4
Job or Work	
Current job does not permit use; lack opportunity	6
Current job not related to field of training	5
Lack authority to use training	4
Lack time to use training	3
Training Program	
Substance too different, too advanced for local use	9
Did not learn anything useful	1
All Other Responses	9
Total[a] %	152
(N)	(13694)

[a] Excludes those who said they encountered no difficulty (N=5106) and N.A. (N=225); percentages add to more than 100% because of multiple answers.

The most prominent sources of difficulties confronted by participants are among those inherent to the conditions of life in underdeveloped areas: scarcity of resources, traditional patterns, and people who resist innovation. The two most common problems--lack of needed equipment or facilities, and lack of money--account for almost 40 per cent of all the difficulties which were cited. Problems with people, especially those in authority, form a second substantial class of hurdles. Relatively few difficulties which had to do either with the proper job placement of returned participants or the applicability of their programs were mentioned. Though too imprecise to bear the weight of firm generalization these data indicate that most of the problems in using technical training arise not from its substantive or administrative character but rather from the fundamental nature of the _posttraining environment_. Others have concluded as much:

> Sufficient evidence [on the links between foreign education and national development] is at hand . . . to make it clear that obstacles to the utilization of knowledge and skill _after return_ are the strategic factor that limits the effectiveness of much foreign study. (Italics mine.)[1]

As noted, we cannot rule out the possible role of inadequate motivation or other factors not mentioned by participants in encountering difficulties or overcoming them. The classes of problems they identified are not those readily solved by better screening of candidates, or adjustments in their programs. The main routes that these data indicate as necessary are those of providing more support and assistance to participants after they return home, and seeking to alter the character of their organizations in a direction favorable to innovative effort.

Plans for Use and Examples of Use

As part of the series of questions dealing with their uses of training the participants were asked: "Do you have any _plans_ for using that training which you have not as yet been able to carry out?" An affirmative answer was considered to be one hallmark of a program's effectiveness, under two assumptions. First, if a participant has yet to make _any_ use of his training but has plans, then some future application is more probable. (It may be that insufficient time has passed, or some temporary job-related problem is acting as a hindrance to utilization.) When not even an _intent_ to make use of what he has learned exists, little of consequence is likely to happen. Second, whether he has already made some use or not, if he can document some plans for future use one can infer a stronger _motivation_ on his part to realize the value of his program. Such a plan represents an expectation of or commitment to future action; if none is claimed, then motivation can be assumed to be lower, and any use consequently less likely. Thus, in the absence of measures of their motivation or real interest in making use of training, we have chosen this item as a probable indicator of the participants' personal commitment.[1]

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[1] M. Brewster Smith, "Foreign vs. Indigenous Education," in D. C. Piper and T. Cole, _op. cit._, p. 69.

Over-all, 54 per cent said they had such plans and 43 per cent did not; the rest were not ascertained. Those who did have plans were pressed to give additional details, and the great majority (73%) described some definite plan. Among the main categories of definite activities they said they will engage in are: to effect some reorganization, or change procedures (29%); to teach others (14%); to institute a new organization or service (12%); to conduct research or surveys (9%). Such positive plans were enumerated more often by administrators or professionals and less often by those in the lowest occupational statuses than others. Those trained in agriculture and education discussed such intentions more often, and those in labor or the private sector less often than did others. Most of the rest who had plans made them conditional on something: plans would be carried out if equipment or money are available, or if the agreement of top officials is forthcoming.

Two factors interact significantly in affecting the existence of plans for some future use of training: the length of time a participant has been back, and whether or not he has already used his skills or knowledge. Earlier we asked whether technical training is a wasting asset, or one whose value is only realized slowly or cumulatively. Plans and the motivations underlying them are equally susceptible to the erosions of time. They are also likely to be affected by past use, in either of two ways. Use can stimulate further plans, which in turn leads to greater use; or some past use of training can exhaust its perceived potentiality or value to a participant and thus dissipate any intentions of further use.

The passage of time clearly is associated with the existence (or persistence) of plans for use; the proportion who report such plans is highest within the first year after return, and declines steadily among those with successively more years back from training (Table 6.20A). This finding lends support to the view that the holding of plans is a functional substitute for actual use among newly-returned participants. And if one has already used his acquired skills, it is more likely that plans persist than if no substantial use of training has occurred (Table 6.20B).

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[1] There are obvious risks inherent in using any survey item in such unintended ways. Further, one cannot disregard the problem of acquiescent respondents who wish to supply some gratifying news about the outcome of their program. But a large number admitted they held no plans, and the other findings, while necessarily only suggestive, are in rough accord with this argument, lending greater credence to the idea of employing this item in this way.

TABLE 6.20.--PLANS FOR FUTURE USE OF TRAINING BY TIME SINCE COMPLETION OF PROGRAM, AND BY USE OF TRAINING

Item	Per Cent "Has Plans"	Total[a] (N)
A. Time Back From Program		
Up to 1 year	68	(729)
One to 2 years	66	(3036)
Two to 4 years	60	(5940)
Four to 5 years	56	(2124)
Five to 7 years	50	(3702)
Seven years and over	41	(2825)
Total	56	(18356)
B. Extent of Use		
Any use (some, quite a bit, almost everything)	58	(15548)
None, practically none	42	(2730)
Total	56	(18278)

[a] Excludes those who were N.A. on both sets of variables.

Both of these findings suggest that if training is a wasting asset it is one mainly for those who have done nothing with it, and not even for a large majority of them. Further, those who have made some use conserve their intentions or plans to a greater extent than those who have not. Among the latter group plans for use are held by a steadily declining proportion with the passage of time, but among the former over half of those back seven or even more years still held some plans for use. In sum, while the data are far from firm on this point, it would seem that an initial determination (motivation or expectation) to put one's training to good use is reinforced by successful acts, and extinguished by failures or inaction, whatever the reasons for the latter.

Toward the end of the interview, the participants were asked to describe "one or two interesting or outstanding things" they had done since returning from their program. Then, only after they had done so, they were probed about the role (if any) their training had played in these activities. This had a twofold purpose: at the Mission level it permitted an efficient and comprehensive collection of "success stories," testimonials as to the actual benefits derived from training. And, of greater relevance to this analysis, the question forced the participants to illustrate in concrete terms what the uses of training have been, rather than letting their earlier claims of use remain unspecified (and unverifiable). Thus, the final hallmark of a program's effectiveness is that a participant was able to specify to an inquirer an accomplishment in which his training had some part.[1]

Over two-thirds (69%) of the participants were able to relate their training to a significant activity in which they had been engaged since their return. Just over one-third of them (36%) described two such activities, in fact; and in all but a fraction of the cases training was asserted to have been useful. In nature these activities were of the same type as the plans for use which participants reportedly held, with one addition. An appreciable number gave an illustration of some situation in which they had simply done their job in a superior fashion as a result of their training. This type of use was given less often than the broad categories of use mentioned earlier: use in some new or changed procedure or reorganization; or in teaching others or demonstrating things to them; or in instituting a new organization or service; or in writing books or reports or doing research.

In sum, by a variety of controlled modes of questioning the participants represent themselves as having made considerable use of the skills, techniques and knowledge they acquired through training. Both their concrete illustrations of past use and their plans for future use tend to involve the same forms of activity with the same relative frequency. Moreover, the difficulties they have encountered and the conditions they attach to future use are similar; chief among these is the scarcity of available resources in the form of capital and equipment, but a strong secondary problem is the lack of support from those in authority. All of these dampening influences, as has been noted, are conditions or problems endemic to the milieus to which they return from training, and must be attacked there.

If the uses they have reportedly made of their training are considerable, the proportions doing so vary with the target or wording of the question, making it difficult to compare subgroups with any great precision. To facilitate such an analysis as part of an exploration of the possible correlates of use we turn finally to an "index of utilization," perhaps the best single measure for such purposes.

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[1] Many country reports make use of these accounts of successful activities by participants. In coded form, they were classified by: whether self-initiated or not (most were); their nature (mainly the same categories as "plans for use"); field of activity (usually the same as training field); and whether training was used.

Index of Utilization

An index of utilization was constructed from answers to the two questions dealing with the principal ways in which training is thought to prove useful--directly at work and indirectly by transmission of its substance to others. The two answers given by participants were cross-classified, following a commonly-used technique of index construction, to yield an index whose categories have several useful properties. They provide a more stable basis for comparing each participant's degree of use than would either of his answers considered separately. And, in their dual meaning the categories of the index relate to a more comprehensive concept of "utilization," one which embraces both of the indicated types of action.[1] Here is how the categories of the index were initially defined (Table 6.21).

TABLE 6.21.--INDEX OF UTILIZATION: DEFINITION OF CATEGORIES AND PROPORTION OF PARTICIPANTS IN EACH

Extent Conveyed to Others	Extent of Use of Training[a]		
	Almost Everything; Quite A Bit	Some	Only a Little; None, Practically None
Almost everything; quite a bit	#1 (37.7%)	#3 (7.1%)	#6 (7.4%)
Some	#2 (10.3%)	#5 (12.8%)	#8 (6.6%)
Only a little; none, practically none	#4 (3.8%)	#7 (3.3%)	#9 (11.0%)

[a] Those N.A. (or inactive) on this variable were classified by their extent of conveying to others within the lowest category (column) of use.

Index of Utilization		Per Cent
Very High (#1)		37.7
High (#2, #3)		17.4
Moderate (#4-#6)		24.0
Low (#7-#9)		20.9
Total	%	100.0
	(N)	(19025)

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[1] The relation between their answers and this concept is necessarily probabalistic. All one assumes initially is that those who are classified by the index

The nine initially developed answer-combinations or categories were reduced still further, to facilitate the presentation of findings;[1] the "very high" category, however, conserves its original operationally-defined meaning. The resulting distribution of participants into four index categories or levels of utilization has no independent significance as a finding. A different choice of distinctions would have produced a different configuration of results. The prime value of the index is as a convenient and efficient criterion measure of utilization, one that blends the two hoped-for outcomes of training.

What evidence is there that this measure, however logical in definition and construction, has validity in terms of the concept it seeks to objectify? Three pieces of data from the three sources of information in the survey can be marshalled in support of such a claim. First, as noted above, the *participants* were probed to describe some concrete activities in which their training had a useful role. Those who were able to specify successively more such examples ought to show correlatively better utilization. (Validity in this instance carries the connotations both of internal consistency and greater specificity in their replies.) Then, the *supervisors* were asked about the importance of their subordinates' training in relation to their present work.[2] Those groups whose training received higher ratings should show correlatively better utilization than the groups whose training's role was minimized by their supervisors. Finally, the *U. S. technicians* were asked to judge the contributions training has made to the participants' job performance.[3] Again, those whose training was seen as having made a greater contribution ought to show correlatively better utilization. (Validity in the latter two comparisons consists

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as higher utilizers are likely to have made substantially greater use than did those classified as lower utilizers. This assumption must then be tested with other data. For an authoritative discussion of index construction and the relation between concepts and their empirical indicators see Paul F. Lazarsfeld and Morris Rosenberg (eds.), *The Language of Social Research* (Glencoe: Free Press, 1955), especially Section I; Paul F. Lazarsfeld and Allen H. Barton, "Qualitative Measurement in the Social Sciences: Classification, Typologies and Indices," *The Policy Sciences*, ed. Daniel Lerner and Harold Lasswell (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1951), pp. 155-192.

[1] This operation has been termed a "pragmatic reduction," when applied to cross-classifications. See Allen H. Barton, "The Concept of Property-Space in Social Research," in Lazarsfeld and Rosenberg, *op. cit.*, pp. 40-53.

[2] See above, pp. 143-144.

[3] See above, pp. 149-150.

in the probability of agreement between a trainee's dual claims of use and the observations of his actions made by others.)

In testing these validating propositions we will restrict our attention to the two polar categories of the utilization index, where any effects can be shown more clearly. The data reveal a consistent pattern of correlations, all of which are in the predicted direction, lending strong support to the view that the index is a valid measure of utilization (Table 6.22, A-C). The participants' ability to specify significant training-related activities is clearly reflected in their levels of utilization. (Put somewhat differently, 45% of the "very high" utilizers mentioned two examples and 35% described one; only 20% were unable to specify one. Conversely, 17% of all those classified "low" by this index mentioned two, and 28% gave one illustration; 55% failed to mention even one.) Participants whose training is given the endorsements of supervisors or of U. S. technicians as having been observed to be of proven value are, in like manner, classified as high utilizers more often. By these tests, the index seems to be a good empirical indicator of the general concept it purports to define, and will be used as the dependent variable in a review of the correlates of utilization.[1]

In our analytical treatment of findings we will employ phrases such as "higher (lower) utilizers," or "use more (less) of their training," or "make better (worse) use"; the following can serve as an example: "Those in longer programs are higher utilizers." They are used as a reportorial convenience, for brevity in stating the degree or direction of association between cross-classified variables, with the index of utilization as the dependent variable. The full finding could be given in this longer but technically more accurate form: "When the sample is subdivided into groups according to the duration of their training, those whose programs were of longer duration contained a greater number of participants classified as 'very high' or 'high' utilizers and/or a smaller number classified 'low' by the index than subgroups with programs of shorter duration." In seeking to avoid such ponderous formulations each time we state a significant finding we run a risk of overstating or distorting a relationship, thus misleading the reader. The data will be shown in sufficient detail to permit an independent appraisal, or the use of different statistical procedures to test for significance of differences.

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[1] Regional reports on these data used an index with slightly different categories, but which produced the same pattern of findings.

TABLE 6.22.--VALIDATION OF THE UTILIZATION INDEX: CORRELATES OF HIGH AND LOW USAGE REPORTED BY THREE SOURCES

Source and Validation Item	Index of Utilization[a] (In Percentages) Very High	Low	Total (N)[b]
A. Participant: Examples of Training-Related Activity:			
Mentions two	51.2	10.5	(6348)
Mentions one	39.4	17.5	(6269)
Mentions none	21.0	36.0	(5984)
Total	37.5	20.1	(18601)
B. Supervisor: Rates Training's Importance for Work:			Total (N)[c]
Essential	42.1	15.9	(1843)
Very important	39.0	18.6	(2352)
Not very, none	27.0	30.8	(1231)
Total	37.4	20.4	(5426)
C. U. S. Technician: Rates Contribution to Job Performance:			Total (N)[d]
Major contribution	43.9	17.2	(1707)
Minor contribution	38.0	22.6	(563)
None, harmful	28.0	34.8	(135)
Total	41.5	21.8	(2405)

[a] Does not show "High" and "Moderate" categories of utilization; each row adds to 100%.

[b] Excludes those who are N.A. on validation item (N=424).

[c] Based on unweighted number of participants rated by supervisors. Excludes those D.K. or N.A. on the validation item (N=174), and those with no supervisor's rating (N=4068).

[d] Based on unweighted number of participants rated by U. S. technicians. Excludes those D.K. or N.A. on validation item (N=240), and those with no rating (N=7023).

Correlates of Utilization

The variables to be examined can be grouped into several broad categories: participant and program attributes; beliefs and sentiments concerning the pretraining and the sojourn phases; and judgments and circumstances relating to the aftermath of training. The relationship of each of these key variables to utilization will be presented under the three headings, interwoven with other pertinent survey data in an effort to place them in a wider context and to point up their implications for policy and for future research with participants.

Participant and program attributes:

1. Age is related to subsequent use of training. Those who were in the youngest (under 25) and oldest (over 50) groups when entering training are poorer utilizers; among the rest, there is a pronounced tendency for utilization to be higher the older the participant (Table 6.23A). This finding suggests that there is a socially structured set of limits, a "floor and ceiling effect" on the effective use of training for development. For the younger trainees (who had less education, and fewer years of work experience) their program often is a learning experience built upon ill-prepared foundations. This group is also subject to more initial job-shifting, whose net effect can be to render training less pertinent for their work. For the most senior group--officials embedded in a job, and coming to the end of their careers--the prospects for use are dimmed by the limited incentives or inclination on their part to take on the role of innovator. Among the rest, with increasing age goes more authority to get things done, or perhaps a stronger inclination to identify one's career goals with his modernizing work tasks. Whatever the specific (and multiple) causes for this finding, its implications for selection seem fairly clear: the chances for an optimal use of training seem poorer among the youngest and oldest.

2. Prior education is related to subsequent utilization. University graduates have made greater use of their training than others, while those with neither university work nor vocational training of any sort make substantially poorer use of their training (Table 6.23B). This finding is related to the previous one (the youngest group had the least education) and to the occupational situation of those who are selected. The quality of their educational preparation, their relevant work experience and the nature of their jobs are all factors conditioning the programming and reception of training, and its ultimate payoff in terms of utilization.

TABLE 6.23.--UTILIZATION OF TRAINING BY AGE OF PARTICIPANTS AND BY THEIR PRIOR EDUCATION AT SELECTION

Attribute[a]	Index of Utilization (In Percentages)				Total (N) (=100%)
	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	
A. *Age (In Years)*					
Below 25	26.4	17.8	26.7	29.1	(1510)
25-39	37.6	18.1	23.8	20.6	(11584)
40-44	40.7	17.8	22.6	18.9	(2774)
45-49	44.2	15.5	21.4	19.0	(1777)
50-54	37.0	12.9	29.9	20.2	(838)
55 and over	34.9	11.8	31.9	21.4	(326)
B. *Prior Education*					
University degree	40.5	17.3	23.0	19.3	(12279)
University work	34.2	17.4	24.2	24.2	(1668)
No university, special school	36.2	16.6	25.2	22.0	(2878)
No university, no special school	27.2	19.0	27.4	26.2	(2200)
Total	37.7	17.4	24.0	20.9	(19025)

[a] In this and the following series of tables on utilization, those who are N.A. on any attribute are excluded.

3. *Occupational status at selection* is related to utilization, in a complex way. Those in essentially administrative positions (whose programs tended to be less extensive) do about equally well in using training; not as good as did the scientists and teachers, but far better than those lower in status. The latter groups, including those who were inactive (students) when selected clearly made less use of their training (Table 6.24A). Earlier we saw that a substantial portion of those in such lower status categories were upwardly mobile. One could argue that the effective use of development skills requires some minimum authority, deriving either from *personal* expertise and the recognized social needs for one's services, or from the prestige or command of resources inherent in one's *office*. Lacking either, as those who remain in lower status occupations do on the whole, utilization is likely to be even more of an uphill struggle--for reasons we have already shown. (If this reasoning is sound, then one would expect the relationship between status and utilization to be even more marked when the effects of job mobility are taken

into account. Evidence on this point will be presented below, as part of the review of postprogram variables.)

TABLE 6.24.--UTILIZATION OF TRAINING BY OCCUPATIONAL STATUS AT SELECTION AND ROLE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN PROGRAM

Attribute	Index of Utilization (In Percentages)				Total (N) (=100%)
	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Occupational Status[a]					
Policy-makers, administrators, managers	36.9	17.6	24.9	20.6	(6914)
Engineers	36.3	19.4	24.1	20.2	(2057)
Scientists, teachers	42.7	17.0	21.4	18.9	(6626)
Technicians	34.0	16.6	25.4	24.0	(1710)
Supervisors, foremen	31.7	17.5	29.9	21.0	(548)
Artisans, craftsmen	30.8	13.6	26.8	28.8	(290)
Workers	21.2	16.0	27.9	34.9	(349)
Students, inactive	18.8	16.6	30.7	34.0	(342)
B. English Language in Program					
Not required	29.5	17.5	27.9	25.1	(3015)
Required; had some difficulty	37.3	17.6	22.7	22.4	(6944)
Required; had no difficulty	40.9	17.2	23.7	18.3	(8846)
Total	37.7	17.4	24.0	20.9	(19025)

[a] See Table 6.2 for definition of categories.

Status at selection is one of the really crucial "input" variables for participant training. In interaction with other personal characteristics it defines the categories of people whom this mode of assistance seeks to serve. We have noted on many occasions how it was related to evaluations of their aspects of programs by participants and others, and how it was linked to the actual nature of training they took. On many of these measures those at the lower end of the status structure differed markedly from their more favored colleagues, and we see now that they tend to make less effective use of their training as well. Some sharper definitions of the goals or objectives of their training, and of the additional resources that may need to be devoted to this category of participants to realize the value of their programs more fully would seem to be in order.

4. English language skill as a requisite for one's program and a participant's difficulties with it appear to be related to his utilization of training. This variable is inextricably intertwined with the site and character of training: that programs not requiring English were associated with lower levels of use is in large part a commentary on the ultimate worth of third country training, as compared with U. S. training. But those who encountered no difficulties were slightly higher utilizers than others who also needed English (Table 6.24B). This finding supports the view that language skill as a criterion of selection deserves more rigorous application, since it would have salutary effects both in the short run (adjustment and learning) and in the long term (utilization).

5. Country of training or the site of one's program is related to utilization. Those trained outside the U. S., especially those whose program was taken in Lebanon (overwhelmingly at the American University of Beirut) were lower utilizers. Japan-trained participants were higher utilizers than others trained solely at Far Eastern sites such as Taiwan or the Philippines (Table 6.25A). The superiority of U. S. training in terms of its outcomes over that taken at almost any or all third country sites needs to be interpreted with caution. Sites other than the U. S. mainland differ considerably from it in the origins and types of participants they get, and in the kinds and lengths of training they supply. The two main categories of sites--U. S. and third country--are not interchangeable program options, either in people or programs. Only controlled comparisons of matched groups sent to each (with much more sophisticated criteria of costs and benefits, and better data on the substance of their training) could serve as a satisfactory design for testing their relative merits. For the present, although these data tend to support the conclusion that at least some third country sites are inferior to the U. S. in the effectiveness of their programs, a Scotch verdict of "not proven" would seem to be appropriate.

6. The types of program they experienced were related to the participants' utilization of training. All but one of the types in which university studies were included were associated with higher levels of utilization. (Participants sponsored directly by universities were higher utilizers than other university trainees sponsored by ICA/AID.) On-job training was also relatively productive, when taken as part of a composite program. The least effective types, in terms of later use of

training were the observation tour or special group program, when it was the sole form of training that was experienced (Table 6.25B).

TABLE 6.25.--UTILIZATION OF TRAINING BY COUNTRY (SITE) OF TRAINING, BY TYPOLOGY OF PROGRAMS, AND BY EARNED DEGREE

Program Attribute	Index of Utilization (In Percentages)				Total (N) (=100%)
	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Primary Country (Site)					
Japan	40.3	18.2	26.2	15.3	(431)
Mainland U. S.	39.3	17.4	23.5	19.7	(15769)
Offshore U. S.	33.9	19.0	23.2	24.0	(500)
Taiwan or Philippines	26.3	16.7	26.8	30.1	(419)
Lebanon	18.3	19.8	28.3	33.5	(659)
All others	32.6	15.1	25.4	26.8	(1214)
B. Typology of Programs[a]					
University, OJT, and observation	43.9	16.4	21.8	18.0	(2676)
OJT and observation	41.6	17.4	23.5	17.5	(2616)
University only	41.3	18.2	22.9	17.5	(2151)
University and observation	39.0	17.4	23.5	20.1	(4000)
OJT only	36.1	17.3	22.6	23.9	(1664)
University and OJT	34.0	17.9	23.1	25.0	(1146)
Special group	31.4	15.9	23.6	29.1	(592)
Observation only	30.9	17.6	27.3	24.0	(4180)
C. Degree Earned at University					
Earned a degree	43.7	19.5	21.3	15.5	(2532)
Awarded certificate	37.1	16.2	23.2	23.4	(3023)
Got nothing	41.9	17.8	22.9	17.4	(3472)
Not at university	35.0	17.2	25.3	22.7	(9953)
Total	37.7	17.4	24.0	20.9	(19025)

[a] See table 4.13 for full description of types.

The form of a program is only a rough indicator of more crucial differences in its contents, or of important corollaries such as whether or not a degree was earned. The latter achievement, so highly valued by participants in its own right, had an appreciable effect on their utilization of training. Apparently an overseas degree has tangible consequences for development work, in addition to being a negotiable asset to one's career development. Interestingly, those were the most relatively deprived among university-goers--those who got a certificate rather than a degree or nothing at all--were almost on a (lower) par with the participants who had no university training (Table 6.25C).

The finding that short-term tours are relatively unproductive, when added to the criticisms, complaints and generally poorer evaluations such training evoked from participants and others can serve to call its value into question. From the standpoint of its occupational outcomes, the observation tour does not seem to have generated results or sentiments of comparable quality to those stimulated by other forms of training. The general pattern of results achieved by these types of programs is linked with their duration, perhaps the most fundamental of all program variables.

7. The duration of training is strongly related to subsequent utilization: the longer the period of training the higher the utilization (Table 6.26A). One partial exception is among those whose training lasted three years or more. (Over half of them went to Lebanon, whose university training was clearly inferior in its end-results to university programs taken elsewhere.) This relationship lends great support to the previously analyzed judgments of participants, supervisors and U. S. technicians as to the relative merits of longer or shorter training.[1] The question of earning a degree, and its professional (as distinct from prestige) value to participants is also implicated in this finding. Degree-earning was strongly concentrated among those with more extended periods of training, typically more than a year. They were gained chiefly by people trained in health, education or agriculture, and were typically at an advanced (master's) level. This related set of attributes suggests that the more "professionally oriented" (longer, given at universities to people at an advanced level) the program the higher its ultimate yield.

8. The fields of training are variably associated with the levels of achievement of their participants. A few, such as health and education have been relatively more productive, and those such as public administration, community development and labor less so than others (Table 6.26B). These findings are of a piece with those reviewed earlier, since each field reflects a certain conjunction of underlying program dimensions whose links with utilization we have explored singly. As such, they represent a capsule or summary of the joint effects of these variables upon the outcomes of programs taken in each. Assuming that the single standard of

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[1] See above, pp. 109-111; 143-144; 149-150.

program effectiveness we have devised is equally applicable in judging them, it appears that those fields which are characterized by a higher degree of professionalization demonstrate a higher degree of transfer of skills and ideas. All of the indicators of professionalization--in status or education of participants, the locus and duration of training, the fields and subfields of their specialty--reflect a consistent pattern of higher utilization.

TABLE 6.26.--UTILIZATION OF TRAINING BY DURATION OF TRAINING AND BY FIELD OF TRAINING

Program Attribute	Index of Utilization (In Percentages)				Total (N) (=100%)
	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Duration of Training					
Up to one month	27.7	14.1	23.6	34.5	(444)
One to two months	27.3	18.3	27.6	26.6	(1058)
Two to four months	33.1	15.0	27.4	24.5	(3052)
Four to six months	32.1	18.7	27.4	21.9	(1733)
Six months to one year	38.9	17.6	23.1	20.3	(6045)
One to two years	43.0	17.6	21.8	17.6	(5942)
Two to three years	45.1	20.4	18.4	16.0	(409)
Over three years	33.6	18.0	29.7	18.6	(177)
B. Field of Training					
Health and sanitation	46.4	18.4	21.2	14.0	(2320)
Education	43.0	18.7	21.7	16.7	(2692)
Agriculture	38.1	16.5	24.4	21.0	(5043)
Atomic energy	36.5	14.7	18.9	29.9	(259)
Industry and mining	35.9	18.1	25.6	20.5	(2811)
Transportation and communications	35.9	18.9	24.5	20.8	(1847)
Community development	34.2	18.0	23.1	24.6	(432)
Public administration	29.8	16.2	22.6	31.4	(2093)
Labor	28.6	13.5	34.1	23.8	(1040)
Miscellaneous	37.5	19.5	22.4	10.9	(488)
Total	37.7	17.4	24.0	20.9	(19025)

Beliefs and sentiments about pretraining and sojourn phases:

9. The selection criteria deemed important by the participants were variably related to utilization. Those few who felt the "needs of the job" not to have been very important in their selection made much less use of their training (Table 6.27A). That one's training is to be closely tied to specific job needs is a widely assumed

precondition for his selection; it is no less a prerequisite for the effective application at work of skills learned in training. Where training is not seen as serving this occupational purpose it is far less productive. Then, those who affirmed the importance of their (English) "language ability" made better use of the skills acquired during training (Table 6.27B). This finding is clearly in line with previously-noted differences in the utilization levels achieved by U. S.- and by third country-trained participants. But regardless of site, selection based on the participant's proven linguistic competence is likely to facilitate his learning, and thus contribute substantially to the usefulness of his training.

TABLE 6.27.--UTILIZATION OF TRAINING BY VIEWS ON THREE SELECTION CRITERIA AND ON PARTICIPANT'S ROLE IN PROGRAM PLANNING

Evaluative Item	Index of Utilization (In Percentages)				Total (N) (=100%)
	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	
A. "Job Needs" as Selection Criterion:					
Very important	39.5	17.5	23.7	19.3	(16742)
Not very important	24.7	16.3	26.2	32.9	(1836)
B. "Language Ability" as Selection Criterion:					
Very important	40.1	17.4	23.3	19.1	(12257)
Not very important	32.9	17.6	25.0	24.5	(6094)
C. "Personal Contacts" as Selection Criterion:					
Very important	39.7	16.2	24.2	20.1	(6745)
Not very important	36.9	17.8	23.9	21.4	(11136)
D. Participant's Role in Planning:					
Took sufficient part	45.9	18.1	21.7	14.3	(5733)
Took insufficient part	36.4	17.7	27.9	18.1	(1407)
Took no part at all	33.9	17.1	24.6	24.4	(11832)
Total	37.7	17.4	24.0	20.9	(19025)

By comparison with both of the above "rational" criteria, the "nonrational," seemingly illegitimate choice of participants on the basis of their "personal contacts" is only marginally related to subsequent use. If anything, the correlation runs in the opposite direction to one's expectations: utilization was slightly higher among those for whom personal contacts were avowedly important than among those who downgraded their relevance (Table 6.27C). One inference to be drawn from this finding, foreshadowed in our earlier discussion of this criterion,[1] is that the selection of a participant on this basis need not compromise the objectives of his program if it is not the sole or most significant reason for his being chosen.

10. The participant's involvement in the planning of his program was related to utilization. Those who were personally involved, who felt they had taken an adequate part in the planning process were higher utilizers than others with lesser (or no) involvement (Table 6.27D). To some extent this finding supports the argument that early participation builds motivation and sets a positive tone for the whole training process. It also reflects a more general pattern of attitudes toward one's program; if a participant took no part at all the training cannot have the same meaning or value to him, viewing it retrospectively, than if he had a hand in shaping its character. Thus, more intense involvement at the outset can augment the value of the training experience in a participant's eyes, and also harness his motivation to the mutually established goals of his program. This finding is one indication of observable consequences of a more carefully prepared program; others are shown below.

11. The extent of information-giving from authoritative sources, an indicator of how well instituted participant training is, is related to utilization. Whether gotten from one's employer or the ministry which served as their sponsor, those who received some advance indoctrination were higher utilizers (Table 6.28A, B). One can infer that where such provisions are made by an employer the hoped-for objectives of training are being taken more seriously. When the sponsor or employer is more involved in the total programming process, it is more likely that a participant's efforts to use his training will be facilitated rather than met with indifference or resistance. It is not the amount or scope of advance information they receive which matters; those expressing satisfaction with more facets of their pretraining orientation did not make appreciably better use of their training. Rather, one suspects that it was the identity of the purveyors; by doing so they

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[1] See above, pp. 41-47.

were signalling their convictions about the value of participant training to those who were being sent.

TABLE 6.28.--UTILIZATION OF TRAINING BY SOURCES OF INFORMATION ABOUT PROGRAM AND BY SATISFACTION PRIOR TO TRAINING

Evaluative Item	Index of Utilization (In Percentages)				Total (N) (=100%)
	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Advance Information From Employer:					
Yes	41.3	18.0	23.2	17.4	(9008)
No	34.6	16.8	24.5	24.1	(9824)
B. Advance Information From Sponsoring Ministry:					
Yes (my employer)	41.2	19.6	24.3	14.9	(2010)
Yes	40.0	18.5	23.8	17.6	(5013)
No	36.3	16.7	23.7	23.4	(11586)
C. Satisfaction Felt Prior to Departure:					
Well satisfied	41.3	17.7	23.4	17.5	(10421)
Not well satisfied	34.7	15.5	25.2	24.5	(2657)
Don't know, remember	32.9	17.8	24.2	25.3	(5857)
Total	37.7	17.4	24.0	20.9	(19025)

12. The satisfaction with which (as they remembered it) participants viewed their approaching period of training was related to utilization; those who were "well satisfied" were higher utilizers than others (Table 6.28C). This attitude was shown to be linked with a participant's involvement in programming, and with the approval he displayed with respect to sources and types of information supplied him in advance of training.[1] It also can be interpreted as reflecting a somewhat better motivational state (resulting in part from more careful preparation), a factor which produces cumulative benefits in the course of training and in its aftermath.[2]

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[1] See above, pp. 70-72.

[2] Another interpretation is of course that of a retrospective "halo effect." Having made effective use of their training some people may be overly generous in their statements of earlier attitudes or evaluations of earlier stages of training. Given the study design of this evaluation effort it is impossible to sort out the time ordering of variables such as these.

13. The scope of supervisory involvement in the advance stages of programming, another sign of how well instituted the program is, is related to participants' utilization of training. The more active supervisors were (by recommending or helping to plan the training of participants) the higher the utilization by participants (Table 6.29A). The crucial role played by one's work supervisor in the process and consequences of training has been a dominant theme of our analysis. His actions relating to the technical training of subordinates are probably decisive for the outcome of their efforts, since he is in a commanding position to make resources available, demonstrate approval of innovative work, and in general to facilitate or prevent organizational change. The fact of his having assumed a multiple role in the initial formulation of a program is an indicator of a greater organizational investment in the training of its member(s), and can be seen as a sign of a social setting more favorable to utilization.

TABLE 6.29.--UTILIZATION OF TRAINING BY SUPERVISOR'S PRIOR INVOLVEMENT IN PROGRAM, AND BY PRIOR ORGANIZATIONAL PLANS FOR USE

Item[a]	Index of Utilization (In Percentages)				Total (N) (=100%)
	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Supervisor's Involvement:					
Recommended participant and helped plan program	41.2	23.4	21.8	13.5	(1265)
Did either	36.5	18.4	25.8	19.3	(928)
Did neither	33.5	17.6	26.7	22.4	(495)
Total[b]	38.2	20.6	24.0	17.2	(2688)[b]
B. Existence of Prior Organizational Plans:					
Plans for use	40.5	20.9	23.0	15.5	(2706)
No plans for use	28.7	14.0	31.0	26.3	(342)
Total[c]	39.2	20.2	23.9	16.7	(3048)

[a] Both of these items are based on a supervisor's answers to questions concerning specific (subordinate) participants.

[b] Based on unweighted number of participants about whom supervisors' replies were available; excludes those who were N.A. (2912) and those who had no supervisor's data (N=4068).

[c] Based on unweighted number of participants about whom supervisors' replies were available; excludes D.K. and N.A. (2552) and those with no supervisor's data (N=4068).

14. The existence of a plan for making use of a participant's training by his employing organization (as attested to by their supervisors) is strongly related to utilization (Table 6.29B). This is another hallmark of good advance preparation, in this case directed at the work environment within which the returning participant's skills and ideas must be translated into effective actions. As noted above, a supervisor's own active role is related to this kind of preparation. Advance commitments solicited from or required of both employers and participants are two ways of attempting to establish at least minimum conditions for successful use.

Any plans for placing the trainee or making some specific use of his acquired skills are more likely to be made as by-products of a broader process of resources planning and allocation. Where such planning has taken place, there is a greater likelihood that a climate more favorable to innovation, or even an "investment" in it exists. The correlation between a prior organizational commitment to make use of a participant's training and his level of utilization lends strong support to a belief in the necessity of insisting that technical training programs be intrinsic to or part of broader aid projects, rather than being mounted on an ad hoc basis in the hope that some good will come of it.

15. Specific qualities of the program, as evaluated by participants, were related in diverse ways to utilization. For example, programs whose level of instruction was of "too simple" or "too advanced" a character (especially the latter) were associated with markedly lower levels of utilization (Table 6.30A). In both cases, such judgments reflect a program which was off target, and lacked integration with a trainee's past achievements; not surprisingly, poorer use resulted. In lesser measure, programs which generated critical evaluations as to their variety (pace or focus) were less productive. In particular, those who felt pressured, in the sense of being "required to do or see too many different things," made poorer use of their training (Table 6.30B). As noted earlier, such judgments did not arise with respect to any specific kind of program more than others. Thus, this relationship can be interpreted as the "boomerang effect" of an excess of zeal in programming, an administrative disease which can affect the programs of all types of participants.

A program which evoked a desire for still more things to do or see was only marginally less productive than one adjudged satisfactory with respect to its variety. But the reverse flaw, of underprogramming, can be shown to bear upon the ultimate

TABLE 6.30.--UTILIZATION OF TRAINING BY EVALUATIONS OF SELECTED TECHNICAL AND NONTECHNICAL PROGRAM ASPECTS

Evaluative Item	Index of Utilization (In Percentages)				Total (N) (=100%)
	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Level of Training					
All right	39.1	17.7	24.1	19.2	(15031)
Too simple	33.9	14.7	24.5	27.0	(2741)
Too advanced	30.1	20.3	22.4	27.3	(1047)
B. Variety (Things to Do or See)					
All right	39.3	18.6	23.1	19.1	(9660)
Wanted still more	37.0	16.8	24.6	21.6	(5590)
Too many things	34.9	15.4	25.3	24.4	(3583)
C. Length of Program					
All right	37.5	17.9	23.8	20.8	(8980)
Too short	38.5	17.1	24.2	20.2	(9177)
Too long	31.2	16.2	22.0	30.6	(826)
D. Time Free for Personal Interests					
Too little	39.4	16.3	24.1	20.4	(7483)
All right	36.8	18.4	24.0	20.8	(11050)
Too much	31.4	14.3	22.3	32.0	(435)
Total	37.7	17.4	24.0	20.9	(19025)

uses to which training is put. With respect to length, those who wanted an even longer program (like those wanting more variety) differed little from those who were satisfied in levels of later use. It was among those few who felt their programs were too long that utilization levels are sharply lower (Table 6.30C). This finding is related to another, that those who felt their program had left them with too much free time to pursue their personal interests were much lower utilizers than others (Table 6.30D). In both cases the common interpretative thread that binds such judgments of programs together is the reaction of participants who found time hanging heavy during their sojourn, a situation most congenial to boredom, withdrawal of interest and a longing for the program to end. Poor utilization of such a disvalued commodity is readily understandable.

In this and in the previous instances of overprogramming and of misdirected levels of training the survey findings provide neat and convincing illustrations of the long-term ineffectiveness of programs which are not carefully prepared, tailored closely to the trainees' backgrounds, past achievements and expectations. (Their status and education were weighty influences upon such judgments of approval or disapproval.) It is not their evaluative judgments of their program in these discrete respects which gave rise to the levels of utilization they achieved. Rather, it was the well or ill-grounded substance of their program, its quality which gave rise both to such judgments and to their utilization of training upon their return.

16. Summary appraisals of the training are slightly related to utilization. An index of satisfaction which classified participants by the number of technical aspects they rated approvingly[1] was only moderately correlated with their levels of utilization (Table 6.31A). In analyzing each separately, we saw that it was not approval or disapproval *per se* but the *type* of disapproval which distinguished higher and lower utilizers. This summary measure tends to blur such qualitative differences in program evaluations given by participants. But, even in an imperfect manner, this finding suggests that it is not the purely technical quality of training which is crucial in the ultimate yield of a program. A poor program is likely to prove unproductive, but even the most satisfactorily realized program, from a technical standpoint, is subject to other intrusive influences which measureably augment or attenuate its effectiveness.

The findings with respect to the nontechnical aspects of a program are even more equivocal, or in some instances nonexistent. For example, utilization levels are unrelated to whether or not participants attended a communications seminar at the end of training, or whether or not they were satisfied with their money allotments during the program. An index of satisfaction which classified them by the number of nontechnical aspects rated with approval[2] was essentially uncorrelated with utilization (Table 6.31B). By comparison with the series of findings shown so far, it appears that the factors associated with the sojourn most closely are of less significance to program effectiveness than one might have reasonably expected; this is particularly the case with those which touch upon the social adjustment of the participants.

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[1] See above, p. 116, for its derivation.

[2] See above, p. 123, for its derivation.

TABLE 6.31.--UTILIZATION OF TRAINING BY INDICES OF SATISFACTION WITH TECHNICAL AND NONTECHNICAL ASPECTS OF TRAINING

Evaluative Item	Index of Utilization (In Percentages)				Total (N) (=100%)
	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Index of Satisfaction With Technical Aspects[a]					
High	39.5	18.8	23.8	17.9	(5050)
Moderate	38.2	18.2	22.8	20.8	(6303)
Low	36.2	15.8	25.0	23.0	(7672)
B. Index of Satisfaction With Nontechnical Aspects[b]					
High	36.7	20.1	23.5	19.6	(6433)
Moderate	38.7	15.7	24.4	21.2	(7121)
Low	37.5	16.5	23.8	22.2	(5471)
Total	37.7	17.4	24.0	20.9	(19025)

[a] See Table 5.1 for definition of categories.

[b] See Table 5.5 for definition of categories.

Earlier we raised the question of how crucial such nontechnical features are, from the standpoint of the use and transfer of the training, assuming one exerts some effort to make training a success as a learning experience and in its personal aspects.[1] From these data, using this criterion of program effectiveness the relationships of such aspects to utilization appear to be not at all crucial. One can readily grant that they contribute to a more pleasant sojourn, and may have social or political effects of an order which was totally ignored in the design and methodology of this study. But they are of demonstrably little significance for the utilization of training which participants effect upon their return.

Why this is so, in view of much conventional wisdom pointing to an opposite conclusion, is a topic which cannot be answered by the data contained in this survey.

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[1] See above, p. 131.

The stress on the social adjustment or handling of foreign visitors as factors bearing on the outcomes of their sojourn was a general theme of previous research on foreign students who were by and large a younger group, less settled into careers and engaged in education or training of a less focussed character. One can suggest that those who come as participants for technical training are less susceptible to the debilitating or dislocating effects of a foreign sojourn. For one thing, increased foreign travel and international communications have reduced the isolation or lack of information of national groups, especially the better educated or technical elites who are the target of participant training. Then, as a mature group with better defined program goals, they can shake off or neutralize the effects of some personally inconvenient or distasteful element in their program more readily.

We have no data on the effects of training on personal or social values, such as their need for achievement or their belief in the possibility of economic and social development (two attitude realms specified as objectives of concern to participant training);[1] further research of a different character is needed to provide information on this class of outcomes. But one can suggest that such research is not likely to yield much evidence of changed attitudes or values, or of their resultant effects upon development work. Any attitudinal effects of such a program must be filtered through the existing, rather stable sets of personal values and beliefs held by persons coming from countries with widely varying cultures and social systems. To hope that a training sojourn can foster greater development-related efforts by changing participants' values or attitudes in a common or consistent direction would seem quite optimistic, in the light of the diversity and maturity of the people with which such a program must contend. The beliefs, values and attitudes held by participants prior to training, and the conditions they confront upon their return are likely to be more powerful determinants of the success they achieve in utilizing their training. It is to the latter class of correlates, pertaining to the postprogram phase, that we now turn.

Judgments and circumstances in the aftermath:

17. The time since completing training bears a direct relationship to its utilization by participants: the longer the time back the greater the utilization

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[1] See the objectives cited above, p. 6.

(Table 6.32A). This finding would tend to support the view that training is not a "wasting asset," but rather has cumulative and continuing effects upon work performance. Use of one's training is decidedly lower among those back three or fewer years, and higher among those back four or more years. The "swing" period, in terms of the empirical patterns reflected in these data, is somewhere between the third and fifth year after training. This is true in terms of the proportion who are "very high" utilizers, and the proportions, considered separately, who claim to have made extensive use of training at work, or conveyed a great deal to others.

TABLE 6.32.--UTILIZATION OF TRAINING BY TIME SINCE COMPLETION OF PROGRAM AND BY INDEX OF GENERAL SATISFACTION WITH TRAINING

Item	Index of Utilization (In Percentages)				Total (N) (=100%)
	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Time Back Since Training					
Up to one year	18.9	18.8	34.0	28.4	(758)
One to two years	28.2	18.6	28.2	25.0	(3152)
Two to three years	34.5	17.4	25.1	22.9	(3654)
Three to four years	36.8	18.9	23.5	20.7	(2519)
Four to five years	44.0	18.2	21.2	16.7	(2212)
Five years and over	44.4	15.9	21.3	18.4	(6702)
B. Index of General Satisfaction					
High	49.1	17.4	21.0	12.4	(7250)
Moderate	32.6	18.4	25.8	23.1	(10126)
Low	18.8	10.8	25.8	44.6	(1649)
Total	37.7	17.4	24.0	20.9	(19025)

A few possible reasons for the lower initial use of training can be suggested. First, a period of reorientation may be typically necessary before one sets about the task of innovation or change. It may take a sizable period of time to translate a concept or technique to one's home setting in an appropriate and fruitful fashion. A need to do some "lobbying" with others in an effort to promote acceptance of new ideas may slow the pace of effective application of the substance of one's training. And one can expect some ultimately successful plans to require a substantial amount of time before their success is visibly assured. A more ambiguous concomitant of the passage of time, in terms of its effects on patterns of utilization is the greater likelihood of occupational mobility. This can mean moves to jobs unrelated to training or into retirement, but also to positions where one's desires to bring about change are now matched by the authority to get things done, or to influence larger numbers of people in ways fruitful for development.

The phasing of posttraining efforts of returned participants and the successes they achieve at various stages are fit topics for future research, using a longitudinal study design rather than the cross-sectional design employed in this study. From these data one can infer that the largest potential increase in effectiveness or benefits derived from training can be achieved by concentrating upon newly-returned participants. If one must choose between a strategy of limited follow-up contacts with all former participants or intensive contacts with more recent ones, the latter suggests itself as the one which will yield the greatest increment of gain.

18. The general attitude of satisfaction with the training experience is viewed is strongly related to utilization. The more satisfied their answers indicated them to be, in an over-all appraisal of training, the higher the utilization (Table 6.32B).[1] It would require a different study design to go beyond this demonstration of a strong correlation between general evaluation and action, to be able to sort out the time-ordering of the variables and establish their causal priority. One could argue that the more (or less) one is able to use his training the higher (or lower) his estimation of its worth will become. Or, with equal logic one can assume that an initial evaluation of one's training is part of a more general motivational orientation which leads him to greater or lesser effort. Finally, and most probably, one could assume that the two go hand in hand, affecting each other in reciprocal fashion. These data do not allow us to choose among the alternatives. Nevertheless, the finding is valuable precisely because of its expected character. We would be surprised to find that it wasn't true that a well regarded program is more productive than a poorly esteemed one. Moreover, the general evaluation of

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[1] An index was constructed, using participants' answers to two questions: how satisfied they were with their training, and how important it was; both of these were to be general appraisals, as they now view it. Those scored as high said they were "very satisfied" and thought training had been "one of the most important things" they'd done; the low group termed training a "waste of time," or "unsatisfactory" (usually both); the rest were classified as moderate in their over-all satisfaction. See above, pp. 137-139, for a review of each of these items.

training by participants which is captured in this index is closely related to every other measure of a program's worth in the survey, derived from all three sources of data. Thus, there is ample justification for treating this finding as having more than a peripheral significance.

19. The career value which training has had for participants is strongly related to their utilization of training. Those who felt training to have had an enhancing effect upon their career were far higher utilizers than others, especially (and unsurprisingly) those who felt they actually suffered as a result of having being sent for training (Table 6.33A). This finding lends support to the assertion that it is what happens after one's program which decisively affects the uses that are made of training: a judgment of whether or not one's program had helped or hurt his career can only be made in the light of events occurring well after the return home. It also provides substantial support for assuming, as we have at several points, that the personal gains which a participant can have derived from training are compatible with or even contributory toward the achievement of his program goals of effective development work. The two are mutually reinforcing; the chance of improving one's position can provide a powerful motivation for firmly commiting oneself to a project of vital importance to national development.

It may not always be possible to do so, but whenever it is, the identification of the ends of a training program as dual--serving both the national interest and one's own--would be a useful theme to pursue in orienting future participants. However lofty and patriotic the sentiments in policy statements which serve as the rationale for training, in designing programs it is risky to lose sight of the mixed motives of people who will undergo training. This diversity of personal motives must be realistically weighed and enlisted in support of the primary program objectives if possible, so that an optimal return on the investment in training foreign nationals can be achieved.

20. The pattern of occupational mobility, (the participant's history of job-changing) is related to utilization in complex ways. As noted earlier, some occupational shifting was directly related to training, while others were the resultants of normal career contingencies. Those who have never changed jobs from the time of their selection set a standard against which every other pattern can be compared. (Training is usually not intended to be or is a prelude to quick job-changing; as

we saw, only a minority linked training in an explicit way to events in their careers.) The pattern which shows the highest levels of utilization are those of participants who returned home to an expected new job, and in particular those who have gone on to another one (Table 6.33B). These were participants who were "groomed" by their program: their high levels of subsequent achievement (both in using training and in moving on to better jobs) can be credited to the effects of their program, without any doubt.

TABLE 6.33.--UTILIZATION OF TRAINING BY CAREER VALUE OF TRAINING, AND BY PATTERNS OF OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY

Career Item	Index of Utilization (In Percentages)				Total (N) (=100%)
	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Career Value: Without Training Job Would Be:[a]					
Worse (training helped)	51.9	18.5	19.3	10.4	(4859)
About the same	33.7	17.6	25.1	23.6	(11368)
Better (training hurt)	30.0	17.1	23.8	29.1	(899)
B. Patterns of Occupational Mobility[b]					
(1) No change since selection	35.8	18.1	25.0	21.2	(7060)
(2) Returned to same job, changed since	41.1	18.0	22.0	18.9	(7141)
(3) Returned to (expected) new job, still in it	42.3	21.0	22.2	14.5	(1255)
(4) Returned to (expected) new job, changed since	50.2	16.7	20.6	12.3	(1280)
(5) Returned to (unexpected) new job, still in it	27.2	17.0	22.5	33.4	(579)
(6) Returned to (unexpected) new job, changed since	32.9	15.1	25.3	26.6	(1148)
Total	37.7	17.4	24.0	20.9	(19025)

[a] Excludes those who were N.A. or "Don't know," and inactive (N=1900).

[b] Patterns are numbered in conformity with Table 6.8, which shows their derivation. Excludes those currently inactive (N=562).

Those who returned to the same job held prior to training, but who have subsequently shifted were also high utilizers. The role of training in their case is not clear, but the relation of any postprogram job mobility *per se* to utilization is apparently positive. Every group of participants who have moved subsequent to their initial assignment after training are higher utilizers than those similarly placed but who are still there.[1] Finally, those whose jobs upon return differed in some unexpected way have done the least with their training, particularly those who have not moved again. (This latter group suffered the highest unemployment rates, and also described themselves as worse off after training with greater frequency than any.) From this finding one can infer that their training was socially unproductive in addition to (or as a result of) being personally damaging.

As with the previous finding, this empirical relationship between what has taken place after training and how much use has been made of it argues strongly for a view of utilization as the outcome of forces or circumstances linked mainly with the postprogram period, and also affected strongly by the personal or career fate of the participant. Where he gains distinct advantages from his program, or has experienced some job-changing in its aftermath utilization is higher. These findings document the complex ways in which careers, training and utilization are intertwined. The contours of a man's posttraining career are to an extent shaped by the experience and in turn act as an influence upon the opportunities he encounters (and his motivation) to make use of the skills and ideas acquired in training. At every point the reality of his personal situation intrudes in the process; what has happened to him in career terms, either because of training or as a sequel to it, is a powerful determinant of the effectiveness of his program.

21. Aspects of the work setting in which a participant finds himself are related to utilization. We saw earlier that when an organization had made plans for using the participant his level of utilization was higher; in a related vein his supervisor's active intervention at the initial stages of the program was correlated with greater use of training. The supervisor's role in the aftermath is no less crucial: participants who characterize their supervisors as "very helpful" in their efforts to apply the skills and ideas acquired in training are far higher utilizers than (successively) those who rated their supervisors as less helpful, indifferent or even hostile (Table 6.34A). A corollary finding is that participants

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[1] A majority of job changes in this latter period were characterized in favorable terms by the participants; see above, p. 168.

who work in a milieu where their supervisor (or others) have also been trained abroad are higher utilizers (Table 6.34B). Our earlier analysis of these linked and potentially supportive aspects of a returned participant's organizational setting is substantiated, at least in part, by these twin findings.[1]

TABLE 6.34.--UTILIZATION OF TRAINING BY ASPECTS OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL SETTING: SUPERVISOR'S HELPFULNESS, AND HIS (OR OTHERS') TRAINING ABROAD

Organizational Setting	Index of Utilization (In Percentages)				Total (N) (=100%)
	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Supervisor's Help in Using Training					
Very helpful	53.9	18.8	19.2	8.2	(7065)
Somewhat helpful	31.8	22.1	27.2	18.9	(4046)
Indifferent	24.8	15.7	24.8	34.8	(1808)
Not helpful	21.3	12.3	24.6	41.8	(2248)
B. Work With Supervisor (Others) Trained Abroad					
Supervisor trained abroad	42.3	19.5	22.6	15.6	(7775)
Coworker trained abroad	45.4	16.8	19.6	18.2	(4526)
No one trained abroad	27.9	15.3	27.5	29.4	(5590)
Total[a]	38.5	17.5	23.5	20.7	(18062)

[a] Both tables exclude participants not trained in their occupational specialty, who weren't asked these questions (N=963).

A key element in the outcome of one's training is the attitude and actions of his supervisor; as has been amply documented, the wider his scope of involvement in program processes, early and late, the more favorable are his own attitudes and his facilitating actions. "Involvement" is no magic key to success, in participant training or elsewhere, especially if it is more protocolar than substantive in nature. But a real measure of involvement, leading to a commitment which is seen and accepted as binding upon the supervisor and his organization, can provide the support that a participant requires for innovative efforts. Help from the supervisors or others at the work place is another example of the powerful impact of concurrent conditions upon a participant's success in making use of his training, regardless of its quality or its antecedents. It would seem well within the capability of the U. S. Mission to create the conditions whereby supervisors and through them employing organizations come to accept such commitments, thus smoothing the path for the returned participant to realize a greater share of the potential of his technical training.

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[1] See above, pp. 175-179.

22. The pattern of contacts with the U. S. Mission is strongly related to utilization. These came about in the context of work on or in relation to U. S.-assisted development projects, or by consultative or advisory contacts with U. S. technicians, or by requesting help of some sort from the Mission after returning from training. However it came about, contact with USOM was related to utilization: the closer the contact the higher the level of use made by the participants (Table 6.35A-C). Those who have worked for USOM or on a collaborative project are higher utilizers; and those who see the U. S. technician available to them with greater frequency are higher utilizers. (U. S. technicians were asked a parallel question on the frequency of their contacts with specific participants. The relationship between their depiction of how frequently they met and the use of training made by the designated participants corroborated the finding based on participants' replies alone.) Finally, the successful granting of requests for help from USOM to returned participants was correlated with their levels of utilization.

All of these discrete findings can be summarized in the generalization: the greater the Mission support for returned participants, through personal contacts and assistance, the greater the use which they will be able to make of skills and techniques acquired in foreign training. The follow-through which the Mission can achieve with returned participants is a powerful catalyst for their being able to realize the benefits inherent in the program. The Mission can work directly with participants, prior to their training and especially after their return. It can work indirectly at all stages to improve or shape the organizational climate in which participants will work, in ways favorable to their efforts. By its policies and practices the Mission can affect the odds that the use of a strategy of "investing in human capital" will pay off in needed developmental change. This identification of the manifold correlates of a program's effectiveness, many of which are within the sphere of competence of the Mission to alter or influence, can serve as a challenging first step in a comprehensive review, at all levels, of available and needed resources for increasing the effectiveness of participant training.

TABLE 6.35.--UTILIZATION OF TRAINING BY PATTERN OF USOM CONTACTS AFTER TRAINING: WORK-RELATED CONTACTS, FREQUENCY OF CONTACT WITH U. S. TECHNICIAN, AND REQUESTS FOR HELP FROM USOM BY PARTICIPANTS

Pattern of USOM Contacts	Index of Utilization (In Percentages)				Total (N) (=100%)
	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	
A. Postprogram Work Contacts With USOM					
Worked for/with USOM	47.4	18.6	21.3	12.7	(4397)
Any contacts	39.7	18.8	22.7	18.7	(6335)
No contacts at all	31.1	15.7	26.4	26.9	(8203)
B. Frequency of Contact With U. S. Technician					
Frequent contact	50.9	18.0	19.6	11.5	(3454)
Occasional contact	39.5	18.6	23.8	18.0	(3143)
Never met him	26.7	14.9	30.7	27.8	(512)
None available at all	34.0	17.0	24.9	24.0	(11857)
C. Help Requested and Received from USOM					
Request adequately met	55.6	16.7	18.3	9.5	(2571)
Request partially met	50.5	20.5	17.4	11.4	(629)
Request not met	40.9	14.6	21.8	22.7	(844)
Never requested help	33.9	17.5	25.3	23.2	(14850)
Total	37.7	17.4	24.0	20.9	(19025)

VII. EVALUATION OF PARTICIPANT TRAINING: REVIEW OF SELECTED FINDINGS

Introduction

This study has reported in great detail on the diversity and variability of participant training, both in its programs and its participants, over the almost two decades of its existence as a governmental program of technical assistance. The data from the evaluation surveys reflect at every level of analysis--country, regional and world wide--not only important differences but also similarities and patterns of agreement in the reactions and experiences of former trainees, and in the course of events after their return home. We have tried to remain true to both the uniformities and points of differentiation in presenting these data.

In this final chapter, we seek to bring together in a convenient place some of the more general and administratively relevant findings, for the information and guidance of Agency officials. Some of this summary set of findings may apply with varying force to particular countries where the program is now operating under changed circumstances or unusual local conditions. An attempt has been made to select the most widely applicable conclusions as reference points against which specific practices can be compared. Those in Washington or the field with specialized interests will want to sift the more detailed findings in this world wide report, in the four summary reports on the regions in which the program is now active, as well as in the individual country reports on the survey.

A Sketch of Participants and Programs

A brief sketch of this group of former participants may be useful; their collective portrait differs in detail from one derived from other Agency statistics, since all European and most sub-Saharan African countries were excluded from the study. West, Central and East African countries are not represented because the number of returned participants has been too small until recently to justify the survey.

These former participants are predominantly men occupying administrative, professional and technical positions at the upper and middle levels of government service. They are a relatively mature and seasoned group, averaging 35 years of age and with a median of eight years' experience in the field of their highest occupational specialization when they were selected for training. They were also a well-educated group, with two-thirds having earned a university-level degree and almost all having attended a university or some technical school for a period of time. This general picture has undergone change in the last year or so, concomitant with the increasing attention being paid to the selection of young leadership in the developing nations, and the growing numbers of (younger and less experienced) African and Latin American participants.

The substance of their programs of training was usually determined in large part by their background and the anticipated skill requirements of developmental projects. Training can have been in a wide variety of subject-matter fields; among the more frequent were (in order): agriculture, industry and mining, education, health, public administration and transportation. The United States was the dominant training site; together with Puerto Rico, it has been the sole or main locus of training for five out of six participants. Although ICA and AID have given financial and administrative support to all, in a majority of cases the actual job of training has been delegated to other federal and state governmental agencies, the academic world, private industry and other groups. Programs are of three basic types: observation tours, usually of two to four months (taken by three-quarters); on-the-job training, of four to twelve months (taken by two-fifths); and university studies, of nine to eighteen months or more (taken by one-half). A majority of programs actually consisted of a combination of types, with an average length of stay abroad of nine months. Orientation, home visits and various cultural and social events were interwoven with their technical training, making for a more diversified and hopefully more pleasant overseas experience.

Judgments and Evaluations

For administrative purposes these selected findings can be grouped into three topical areas, corresponding to the main phases of the program: the prelude, the sojourn, and the aftermath. They represent, in the main, the perspectives of participants--the "consumers" of training--not those of an independent observer or outside study team. The primary source of information was the survey with returned participants; less attention was paid to data from their immediate supervisors and U. S. technicians in the various Missions.

Prelude to Training--Predeparture

1. Selection: The process of selection worked satisfactorily in their view, and appropriate criteria were employed.

Almost all former trainees rated ability, qualifications and job needs as very important; by comparison, personal contacts played a minor role. (Those who were not selected might hold other views.) Most were selected directly by others rather than applying to go abroad themselves, and their work supervisor was the principal agent mentioned as having had the decisive voice. The main shortcoming of these trainees, indicative of lax selection practices, was the poor English language facility that many demonstrated.

2. Predeparture Orientation:

a. The information they received on social and cultural patterns in the United States (or other sites) was generally satisfactory.

Of five items about which they were questioned (e.g., use of restaurants, religious customs, etc.), only with respect to colloquial speech and idioms did as many as one-fifth seem displeased with the information supplied to them. Their age, education and experience may have made this area of orientation less critical than is usual with foreign students.

b. The information they received about details of their approaching training was less satisfactory.

In contrast to the predeparture orientation they received on social and cultural matters, substantial numbers of former trainees complained about the lack of information on precisely where they would be going and what they would be studying on their program. Local functionaries (supervisors, ministry officials) were mentioned as information sources by a minority; some formal orientation seemed to be available for less than half of the participants. As a result, a majority did not seem adequately briefed prior to their overseas trip.

3. Plans and Programming: Participants tended to be left out of the planning process.

Only a minority (two in five) helped to plan their own program to any extent, and frequently the rest were confronted with only a partly arranged plan for training. Their work supervisors seemed to have been active during this phase of programming more often than were the participants, particularly if some firm commitment had been achieved as to the placement and use of the trainee upon his return. This finding is related to the previous set; together they reflect an image of many participants as having been passive actors in the program, neither actively engaged nor adequately informed in the preparatory stages of training.

4. Early USAID Contacts: Participants were infrequently in contact with the AID Mission prior to training.

Three in five reported no prior contact at all, and U. S. agencies and officials were infrequently cited as active in selecting or orienting them. (The U. S. technicians who were interviewed painted a much more favorable picture of their activities at this stage.) Opportunities to influence participants' motivation for training and introducing change are thereby being missed.

5. In sum, the preparation of participants seems to be a weak program area.

Only half the trainees remembered themselves as being satisfied with their program prior to going abroad. Information and guidance in their own country seemed often to be lacking, as was a sense of their own capacity to influence the course of training in some desirable way. Such shortcomings are in part inevitable in programs subject to administrative leads and lags in scheduling and obtaining clearances. Shortages in local Mission staff with a primary obligation to handling the training of participants may also contribute to these demonstrated weaknesses in the program.

The Program Sojourn

6. Orientation and Guidance: Some initial orientation and program guidance is generally made available and is esteemed highly.

Initial doubts and misgivings over gaps in information seem to be largely absorbed at this early stage of the sojourn. The program of the Washington International Center figured prominently in the participants' comments, as do the activities of their program managers. The details of their reception seem to have been satisfactorily carried out for most participants.

7. Technical Aspects of Training:

a. The level of training was generally satisfactory.

Programs whose level was judged as inappropriate were more often thought to have been too simple than too advanced, but only one-fifth of the participants rated the programs unsatisfactory in either sense.

b. The planned pace or variety of training was viewed in much more critical terms.

Only half of the participants felt they had seen and done "enough." The rest split sharply between wanting still more or wanting less, regardless of the kind of training they had received, or their personal background. A secondary concern of trainees and supervisors was over the relative lack of practical experience provided as part of training.

c. The duration of the programs was the one aspect most closely related to judgments of a program's over-all quality.

Participants, their supervisors, and U. S. technicians all rated longer programs as more valuable or useful. The most common complaint of the participants was over the brevity of their programs, especially in the case of observation tours. In fact, one can generalize as follows: the more they got the more they wanted, usually up to one year more of training or even longer.

This preference is related, by implication, to a desire to return home with a degree earned while in training. Only about a quarter of all university-trained participants do so, but the great majority of all who were asked saw distinct career advantages resulting from acquiring a degree. Few participants who were not regularly enrolled students ended up with a degree; little "slippage" from a planned sequence of training to a degree program occurred.

8. Nontechnical Aspects of Training:

Participant opinions were ascertained about a number of nontechnical aspects of training, such as the money allotment, home visits, planned social activities, and free time available to them during training. Approval was expressed about such matters in varying degrees, dependent primarily upon the status of the participant and the locale and length of his program. Those higher in status or on shorter programs requiring travel to many places were more often critical. Apart from home visits, which few disliked, discontent relating to these nontechnical aspects was shown by between one-quarter (wanting more social activities) and two-fifths (wanting more free time for themselves) of the participants. No generalizations which could tie these sorts of dissatisfactions together are possible, except perhaps for this: a significant proportion of trainees felt overscheduled and underfinanced. In their freely given criticisms of the training experience, however, few complained about the nontechnical aspects of their sojourn.

9. English Language: Almost half of the participants encountered some difficulties in using or understanding English.

The only really effective antidote to this was the high level of facility with the language which one had acquired well prior to selection. Special intensive courses did not seem to allay this difficulty. The only group which largely escaped this class of problems were those who neither took such training nor wanted any. It should be noted that the language screening test scores, for the minority of participants who took them, were correlated highly with later linguistic difficulties.

10. Completion of program:

Almost all (96%) of the participants completed their training programs and most went through it substantially as it had been initially planned. Only one per cent of all participants broke off their training because of its unacceptable qualities.

The Aftermath of Training

11. Unemployment: Almost all participants have been employed continuously since their training program.

Only four per cent had ever been unemployed since their return, mostly for relatively brief periods. About a quarter of these explicitly linked their unemployment in some way to their participation in a training program. The program does not, by this measure, seem to be serving as a receptacle for unwanted personnel.

12. Placement: The greatest number of participants returned home to the same job held prior to their program, or to an expected one.

When the participants returned home, the first job that 77 per cent of them went into was the same job they had had before they left for the training sojourn.

An additional 14 per cent did not go into the same job but into one they expected to get. From this and correlative findings on job mobility over time, we can infer that between 85 and 90 per cent of all trainees were eventually placed appropriately, or at least as had been expected. (A roughly similar proportion were said to have had plans drawn up _before_ they left for training as to the use to which it would be put.) Those whose jobs were switched in unexpected fashion were more often unemployed at a subsequent time, and were also less sanguine about the value they had derived from training.

Half of the participants had returned from training more than four years prior to being interviewed, and a good deal of job mobility had occurred that was unrelated to training. Only 37 per cent were still in the same job they held prior to training; among the rest, changing jobs sometimes had the effect of making their specific technical training somewhat irrelevant from the standpoint of national development. Three kinds of changes which may have had this effect were: retirement, shifts into private industry, or promotions from professional to administrative positions.

13. _Career Impact_: _Well over half the returned participants thought they would have had about the same job they had at interview if they had never gone on a training program_.

About three in five thought they would be holding their present job if they hadn't gone for training, while one-quarter felt that training had definitely led to their getting a better job. Only five per cent thought they'd now be better off if they hadn't gone on a training program. Age at the time of selection was the primary factor: the older participants (those over 40) were much more likely to have found training to have made no difference; conversely, those under 30 (who earned degrees fairly often) were much more likely to see training as having aided them in their career. From this, one could infer that training younger people leads to a much better pay-off for them than for older participants.

14. _Nearly all participants were satisfied with their training_.

Over ninety per cent of the participants expressed satisfaction with their training programs in retrospect and almost half said they were _very_ satisfied. Two-thirds of them agreed that it had been "one of the most important things" they had ever done. In their satisfaction with training and judgments of its importance, only one per cent were wholly negative and about seven per cent partially so. Favorable attitudes toward training derived as much from the personal rewards it has brought a participant as from its occupational usefulness.

15. Other General Views of Training:

The participants' work supervisors and some U. S. technicians who knew them both rated their training programs equally highly. About three-quarters of the participants' programs were rated by each group as having been "of major importance" to their current work assignments. Only about five to eight per cent were adjudged irrelevant or even harmful, in some sense, to their job performance.

16. Postprogram USAID Follow-up Contacts:

Just over two-fifths of the participants have had no subsequent contacts of any kind with USAID since their return from training. Those who had some previous relationship to the AID Mission were much more likely to have engaged in a later U. S.-assisted work project. But a great many participants seem to have lost touch with or become invisible to the Mission; for example, less than two in five were aware of any U. S. technician who might give them advice. Further, only 22 per cent had ever asked for help in the form of materials, advice or money since their return; almost all who requested help received assistance. The moral or material support that USAID could provide is, therefore, either unknown or not being offered to the great majority of former participants; little follow-up work was being done with them.

Utilization of Training

The uses of the knowledge and skills which participants acquired through training were explored directly and indirectly in the survey. A large number of potential correlates of such uses were examined, and some were found to be particularly closely related to utilization. Before reviewing several of these, we will report on the participants' claimed use.

17. A large majority of participants have made effective use of training in their occupation.

About three in five said they had made extensive use, and another quarter spoke of some effective use of their training; only twelve per cent denied making any use of it at all.

18. Almost all participants said they had conveyed aspects of their training to others.

More than nine in ten said they had passed on some benefits of their training to others, primarily through informal channels but also through lectures, formal training and in articles or other writings. (This widespread "multiplier effect" was corroborated for the most part by data from the former participants' supervisors.) Only seven per cent said they had not transmitted anything they had learned.

19. More than half of the participants still had some plans for using their training.

The proportion who showed such heightened motivation varied with the passage of time since their training, and with the extent of their prior use. Those who had used their technical training were more likely to say they had plans for (further) use, but this determination dropped off sharply among those who had been back four or more years.

20. An Index of Utilization:

A scale was constructed to measure the extent to which participants had both used and transmitted their technical training, and cross-checked against other survey items bearing on the utilization of training. Participants were classified into four groups, which ranged from "very high" to "low." Approximately 38 per cent of the returned participants were classed as "very high" utilizers, having both used and transmitted their training extensively. Another 17 per cent were rated as "high"; they had neither used nor transmitted their knowledge to as great an extent as the first group. A third group of 24 per cent was rated "moderate" in their use and transmittal of training, while 21 per cent were classed as "low" utilizers in both respects. The utilization index was employed as a guide in exploring the correlates of utilization: those personal, program or environmental factors which were clearly associated with greater and lesser use. Some which seem especially relevant from an administrative perspective are discussed below.

a. The more "professionalized" the field of training, institutionally or in the status of those who were trained in it, the greater the utilization. Thus, those trained in health, education and agriculture reported somewhat better utilization than those trained in fields like public administration or labor.

b. Programs *taken in the United States* or in the Far East tend to be associated with better subsequent utilization than those in other "third countries," especially Lebanon. This finding must be interpreted with caution, since the various sites differ sharply in the type of trainees and the character and length of training. The issue of "U. S. versus third country training" can only be resolved by controlled comparisons, using similar people who are sent for similar types of training; these data only hint at some sources of variations in utilization that are site-related.

c. Programs of *longer duration*, especially university-based types, tend to be associated with better occupational use than are briefer programs, especially the observation tour. This finding is intermeshed with other factors that influence the kinds of trainees sent on the various types of training programs. What does emerge clearly is the limited value of the observation or special group tour when assessed by its subsequent occupational utility.

d. Utilization by participants was heavily influenced by the *relationship of their supervisors* to the program; directly and indirectly, early and late.

1) The more active the supervisor's role in selecting trainees and in programming, the more helpful he was seen to be by his subordinates in attempts to make use of training, and the greater the utilization.

2) The more active his role, the more likely was it to have been true that a trainee's work organization or ministry had definite plans for making use of his training, and the greater the subsequent utilization.

3) The more active his role, the more likely is he to rate his subordinates' training as essential or very important to his current job, and the greater the utilization.

e. The more active *role that the participant played in his program planning*, the greater his utilization. This is reinforced if the supervisor himself has also been involved in the initial program planning and in specific plans for making use of the participant when he returns from training. This set of findings clearly indicates the greater prospect of ultimate utilization of training by trainees in a well-instituted program, one in which participants and supervisors are brought into close relationship with its operation at the outset.

f. The more satisfied a returned participant is in his over-all evaluation of training, the greater the utilization. This expected finding only confirms the assumption that a high-quality program is both pleasing and more productive, since it is the quality of technical training that is most closely related to a participant's eventual satisfaction.

g. Programs of training which are perceived by returned participants as having contributed to career enhancement are associated with better utilization. This is another finding in which subjective rewards and evaluations and occupational effectiveness are closely intertwined.

h. Because of the conventional wisdom that would hold to the contrary, it should be noted that evaluations of the nontechnical aspects of training seem to be unrelated to subsequent utilization. The pleasures or irritations that participants may feel during their program are presumably too closely linked to the particular circumstances which gave rise to them to have much residual occupational effect at a later period of time and in a very different social context.

i. The closer the relationship between returned participants and USAID, the greater the utilization. This is based on data derived from both participants and knowledgeable U. S. technicians. Working on projects sponsored by USAID or a closer postprogram association with available U. S. technicians is conducive to greater utilization by participants. This set of findings clearly demonstrates the significant follow-up and supporting role that USAID can play in fostering the process of technical transfer and application of advanced skills and knowledge.

These data reveal many specific contributions which can be made at all stages of the participant training program to its ultimate effectiveness. Value is added by selecting trainees based on true job or project needs; intimately involving the trainee in the programming of training, by securing institutional commitments on the placement and use of the participant in advance of his departure; by closely coordinating his program with significant authority-wielding individuals in his immediate work environment, and by supporting him upon his return through follow-up activities. The controlling image which underlies an effective program is of training as a professional rather than a personal experience, a closely-tailored learning experience rather than an impression-creating whirl of activities. Greater care and attention paid to the institutional factors--coordination, scheduling, orientation, language, placement, etc.--especially those which relate to the postprogram context in which utilization efforts will take place would seem to be among the most important foci of future policies. The data also point in unmistakable fashion to the Mission level as being the prime locus for influencing the outcome of training, and for increasing program effectiveness.

APPENDIX A

PROFILES OF TRAINING FIELDS AND TWO SPECIAL PARTICIPANT GROUPS

Part One: Profiles of the Major Fields of Training[1]

Introduction

The participants' programs were classified into nine major (and one minor) fields of training. This classification has been used elsewhere to describe the broad substantive context of technical training; its relationships with other structural components of programs were discussed earlier (pp. 85-87). In this special analysis, we shall take up each field in turn, comparing and contrasting it with others. Each of them was chosen as a focus for intensive review because of the numbers of former participants trained in it, or because of the distinctiveness of its "profile" of findings drawn from the survey data.

The proportional distribution of participants among the fields is sizably affected by the exclusion of all European "productivity team" trainees and similar groups of Japanese participants, who were concentrated in industry. As a result the field of agriculture emerges as the field with the greatest number of participants, containing almost twice as many as the number trained in industry and mining, its closest "competitor." (These two fields are reversed in order of prominence in cumulative AID statistics on trainees who have arrived in the U. S. Available data from AID records show that the distribution of surveyed participants is identical with one based on trainees from these twenty-three countries in the period 1950-1960.) A tabulation of these major fields and their main subspecialties is show below (Table A.1).

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[1] The heavy spadework of my colleague Gene B. Petersen in preparing this section is gratefully acknowledged.

TABLE A.1.--THE DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS BY TRAINING FIELDS, AND BY THE PRINCIPAL SUBJECT MATTER AREAS OF EACH

Training Field		Per Cent in Each Field	Per Cent of Total
Agriculture and Natural Resources			26.5
Research, agricultural education, and extension		33.5	
Crop and livestock development		19.8	
Land and water resources		12.4	
Agriculture economics, farm organization, agricultural credit		10.4	
Forestry		4.5	
Home economics and rural youth		4.4	
Other		15.2	
	(N=5043)	100.0	
Industry and Mining			14.8
Industrial management		23.0	
Power and communications		22.3	
Manufacturing and processing		13.5	
Mining and minerals		10.4	
Engineering and construction		10.4	
Industrial training		9.6	
Other		10.8	
	(N=2811)	100.0	
Education			14.2
Professional and higher education		28.1	
Technical education		16.9	
Elementary education		15.4	
Vocational agriculture education		6.9	
Educational administration		4.8	
Secondary education		4.4	
Fundamental adult and community education		4.1	
Home economics education		3.8	
Other		15.5	
	(N=2692)	100.0	
Health and Sanitation			12.2
Health training and education		45.5	
Health facilities (operation and advisory services)		18.2	
Environmental sanitation		14.3	
Control of specific diseases		6.5	
Other		15.5	
	(N=2320)	100.0	

TABLE A.1--Continued

Training Field		Per Cent in Each Field	Per Cent of Total
Public Administration			11.0
Public budgeting and finance administration		25.9	
Civil police administration		19.7	
Government-wide organization and management		14.2	
Statistics--general and census		7.8	
Administration of management schools		7.6	
Organization and management of particular ministries		4.5	
General services administration		3.8	
Other		16.5	
	(N=2093)	100.0	
Transportation and Mass Communications			9.7
Air transport		37.0	
Highways		21.5	
Railways		16.2	
Mass communications		6.9	
Other		18.1	
	(N=1847)	100.0	
Labor			5.5
Labor and trade union leadership		57.1	
Apprenticeship training for workers		7.9	
Legislation and labor union welfare services		7.9	
Labor management relations		3.8	
Manpower utilization		3.7	
Industrial safety and hygiene		3.5	
Other		16.1	
	(N=1040)	100.0	
Community Development, Social Welfare and Housing			2.3
Community development		65.8	
Social welfare		15.6	
Housing		13.3	
Other		5.3	
	(N= 32)	100.0	
Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy	(N= 259)		1.4
Trade and Investment	(N= 59)		0.3
All Other, Miscellaneous	(N= 429)		2.3
TOTAL PARTICIPANTS	(N=19025)		100.2

Each of the profiles of training fields is organized in a similar fashion. After briefly noting its principal subspecialties, the chief characteristics of its participants and programs are reviewed. These are followed by a discussion of the stages of selection and preparation for training. Finally, after sketching some elements of the postprogram work histories of its returned participants, we devote the last part of the profile to data on their evaluations and uses of training.

A note on tabulations.--A large series of tabulations are presented at the end of this section, showing the data on which our profiles were based. They are organized in parallel sequence with our analysis of data on each field for readier reference (see Tables A.2-A.6, pp. 263 to 268). These findings were selected from an even larger number, for their strategic value in assessing training fields on a comparative basis. Some of the findings have appeared in the body of the report. The tabulations may be looked at in two ways, depending on one's primary interest. If a particular field of training is of interest, then only the relevant column of percentages need be consulted. If one is concerned about some phase of the program, for example the utilization of training or preparation for training, then the rows containing the pertinent data can be reviewed. Our discussion of each field represents a blending of the two approaches: the principal features of each field are drawn together to form its profile, but they are discussed primarily in terms of their similarity or contrast with others. For comparative purposes we have adopted a rule of thumb that differences greater than 5 per cent between the responses of participants in any field and in all others on an item merited special note in its profile. The data are reported in sufficient detail for other statistical tests to be employed, if desired.

Agriculture

The field of agriculture has, in the past, received the highest priority in the Participant Training program: the largest number (5,043 or 27%) of the participants were trained in this field. None of the twenty-three countries in our survey "allocated" less than one-sixth of their trainees to it; in thirteen of them a quarter or more of their participants were sent for training in agriculture. A third of these participants received training in agricultural research, education or extension services (activities which were basic to the transformation of U. S. agriculture);

one-fifth were trained in crop and livestock production; one in eight in development of land or water resources, and a tenth in agricultural economics and farm or credit organizations. Less than 5 per cent were trained in forestry or fishing, in home economics or work with rural youth.

Participant characteristics.--Compared with participants in other fields, agricultural trainees were better educated: 72 per cent held university degrees (vs. 62% in other fields). More were governmental employees (82% vs. 72%),[1] and more had experienced some work-related contacts with USOM projects prior to their selection (46% vs. 36%). But they did not differ from other trainees in age (one-half were over 35), work experience (one-half had 8 or more years' experience in their field), or in occupational status (half being professionals or engineers, while a quarter were administrators or middle-level managers) at the time of their selection.

Program characteristics.--Training programs for agriculture participants differed from those in other fields in two major respects: except for trainees in atomic energy, they were more likely than others to have gone on observation tours (78% vs. 68%). The single most frequent type of program, however, was one incorporating an observation tour and university training (25%); an additional 18 per cent had all three major types of training, and 21 per cent went only on an observation tour. Again, with the sole exception of atomic energy, more trainees in agriculture than in other fields found their programs set up in complete detail when they arrived in their training country (64% vs. 54% in other fields).

In most other respects, their programs were similar to those of participants in other fields. Half began their training after 1956, four-fifths spending all or most of their time in the United States. Although only 5 per cent of agriculture participants were trained in Japan they constituted nearly three-fifths of all participants trained there; smaller proportions were sent to the Philippines, Lebanon, or to U. S. territories. The median duration of their training was eight and a half months; one in eight received a university degree while in training. Substantial changes were made in the programs of a sixth after arriving in their country of training. Most were met by a program manager--less often by an employee of ICA (32%)

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[1] Data are reported in this short-hand way many times in these profiles. The comparison being made is always between those in a given field and in others in the proportions who were, said or did something.

than by an employee of another governmental agency (40%), usually the Department of Agriculture (USDA). Three-quarters of those trained in the United States (30% of those trained elsewhere) attended a formal orientation session at the beginning of training, generally one conducted by the Washington International Center. Just under half of those few (17%) who attended a communications seminar at the end of their training took part in one run by USDA; they constituted about three-quarters of all whose seminars were run by USDA.

Selection and preparation for training.--Despite being more concentrated in government and closer to USOM activities, agriculture participants did not differ in their selection and preparation for training from participants in other fields. Half said they were selected by their supervisors, and a tenth by USOM personnel. Nine out of ten rated their "job needs" as "very important" in their selection for training; three-fifths rated their "language abilities" similarly. Two-fifths said their "personal contacts" had been influential.

Over four-fifths were sent on programs requiring English, but less than two-fifths received any special language preparation. Of all whose programs required a knowledge of English, one-half regarded themselves as adequately prepared in this respect. Two-fifths took part in planning their own programs, most saying that as a result their programs were based at least in part on some of their own ideas.

Interviews with U. S. technicians and supervisors suggest that the technicians may have been more active than the supervisors in program preparations: technicians said they had helped plan programs for 70 per cent (or helped to select 69%) before training; supervisors recommended and helped plan the programs of fewer than one half of the participants who had been in their employ prior to selection.

As with trainees in other fields, agriculture trainees were more satisfied with the orientation they received on five key aspects of their training country (57%) than with information on five key items relating to the details of their programs (45%). Finally, just over half said that they were "well satisfied" with their prospective programs at the time they left for training.

After training.--The posttraining experiences of the agriculture participants differed only with respect to contacts with USOM personnel: the proportion who worked for USOM or on a jointly-sponsored project was greater (29%) than among any other group of trainees except those trained in community development. They were in close contact with USOM technicians more often: 23 per cent in agriculture saw technicians "frequently." And, more had requested assistance (advice or materials) from USOM since their return (27% vs. 20%); their requests were also more often fully met, two-thirds having received all the help they had sought.

The job mobility of these participants was akin to the pattern of others; 3 per cent have experienced some unemployment, four-fifths returned to the same job held before their program, and one-half were, when interviewed, in the same job they had upon their return from training. Their current supervisors were judged "very helpful" in facilitating the use of training as often as were those of trainees in other fields; 38 per cent of the trainees rated their supervisors in these terms. Ninety-two per cent of all trainees currently employed in the agricultural sector of their economy were trained in that field.

Training evaluations.--Appraisals of programs by the agricultural participants differed in only two major respects from those of others. The participants were more likely than all but the education trainees to claim they still had plans for using their training; 58 per cent did so. They also received more favorable ratings from USOM technicians; more of these participants were credited by technicians as having received training which made a "major contribution" to their job performance (71% vs. 62%). Again, only transportation and communications participants were cited more often by U. S. technicians as having jobs of "above average" importance for economic development: 73 per cent of those rated by U. S. technicians were so rated.

Other evaluations of the agriculture programs were not unusual. Like others, these participants were more critical of the technical than of the nontechnical aspects of their programs: less than a quarter were satisfied with the duration, level, and variety of their training programs, but nearly a third were satisfied with the funds provided for their travel and maintenance, the social activities arranged for them, and the amount of free time at their disposal. Half had used a great deal of their training in their current job, and nearly two-fifths had both used and transmitted most of what they had learned. As in other fields, the agriculture trainees were more enthusiastic in judging their programs per se than in assessing its career impact. While only a quarter said their job positions had actually improved as a result of training, two-thirds of them rated their training as "one of the most important things they had ever done," and nearly half said they were "very satisfied" with their program as a whole (almost two-fifths agreeing with both statements). Their supervisors were even more favorably impressed, judging the programs of three-fourths of their subordinates as "essential" or "very important" for the work done by the participants. Finally, USOM technicians were satisfied with the extent to which five-sixths of the participants they knew had used their training.

Industry and Mining

Just over half as many participants were trained in industry and mining (2811 or 15%) as in agriculture. Within the field, industrial programs took clear precedence: nearly a quarter of the participants were trained in industrial management; 22 per cent in power and communications; one in seven received training in manufacturing and processing. Mining and mineral processing, engineering and construction, and industrial training each accounted for about 10 per cent of the participants. Smaller proportions were trained in service industries, marketing and distribution, and other activities.

Participant characteristics.--These participants differed initially in two respects. Only 46 per cent (fewer than in any field except labor) were government employees, another 18 per cent worked in nationalized industries, and nearly five times as many were privately employed (28% vs. 6%) as in other fields. The emphasis on programs in management and engineering reflects the occupational status of the participants; twenty-eight per cent were managers or administrators, while engineers were more numerous (27%) than in any field except transportation and communications. In age, experience, education, and extent of prior contacts with USOM projects and personnel, however, these participants were similar to those in other fields.

Program characteristics.--Programs in industry and mining were less varied than in other fields, less often including university training and thus leading rarely to academic degrees. Fifty-five per cent of the participants (vs. 43%) received only one kind of training; 29 per cent (vs. 57%) attended universities; and only 6% (vs. 15%) received degrees. However, apart from the larger proportions sent to private business firms for orientation (5%) or whose programs were managed by employees of private firms (7%), the programs for these participants differed little from those of others on the basic dimensions of training.

Selection and preparation for training.--Trainees in industry and mining also saw the selection process and the grounds for their selection in much the same terms as others. Most claimed to have been selected by their supervisors; but fewer (in proportion) felt that USOM had the final voice in their selection (7%), and more than in other fields thought they had been selected by special boards (8%), or persons or groups other than those most often mentioned.

They helped to plan their own programs slightly more often (42% vs. 38%), and those taking part in program planning were slightly more likely to have gone on programs based at least in part on their own ideas (85% vs. 81%). U. S. technicians were more often involved in planning the programs of those they had known before training (88%) than in any field except labor; the extent of their supervisors' involvement in pretraining preparations was not different from those in other fields.

Only community development participants were better supplied with advance information about their programs; 46 per cent had enough orientation on all five major details of their program. Industry and mining participants did not differ from others in their satisfaction with the orientation given them about their country of training, or in their state of satisfaction with their program at departure.

Finally, industry and mining participants sent on programs requiring English were slightly less likely than others to have had difficulty with the language during training (39% vs. 46%). But they did not differ from others in the number sent on programs requiring English, in the proportion receiving special language instruction, or in rating the adequacy of their language preparation.

After training.--Industry and mining participants differed little from others in their job mobility after training and in their evaluations of how helpful (in using training) their work supervisors have been. But fewer than in other fields have had any contacts with USOM since returning (50% vs. 58%), and fewer had worked on projects for or with USOM (15% vs. 25%). They were also less often in "frequent" contact with technicians (13% vs. 19%). Despite this relatively greater isolation, they were no less likely to have asked USOM for help, and such requests were as often fully met. Three-fifths (61%) of all those now employed in this economic sector received training directly related to it.

Training evaluations.--On only one major count were the evaluations of these trainees divergent from others. They were less likely to have considered their training both "very satisfactory" and "one of the most important things" they had ever done (32% vs. 39%). These participants did not differ from other groups in any other respects, either in their own judgments or in the ratings given by their supervisors or knowledgeable U. S. technicians.

Education

Training in education, received by 2692 or one in seven participants, was primarily oriented toward teachers: only a fifth of the programs were in school administration or other ancillary activities. Half of the participants were trained for advanced or specialized teaching (28% for university or professional school faculties, 23% in technical or vocational education). The next largest group (15%) was trained in primary education, with equal numbers (5%) of secondary school teachers, instructors of adult education and home economics.

Participants' characteristics.--Although education had a very large proportion of young participants (32% were under thirty, compared to 26% of others), they did not differ in work experience, prior education, or previous work contacts with USOM. More among them were students (4% vs. 1%) or independent professionals (10% vs. 2%) but, as in other fields, most were government employees. Three in five held some professional status (vs. 43% in other fields); a quarter were administrators.

Program characteristics.--Participants in education were most likely to have been sent abroad on a program that led to an academic degree; as a corollary, their programs were also longer. Nearly three-fifths were in training for a year or more, and a third earned degrees (31% of other participants were on programs as long, and only 10% earned degrees). Not only were they far more likely than others to have attended a university at all (79% vs. 49%), but 30 per cent received only university training (vs. 8%); another 31 per cent were on programs that included university training and an observation tour. Few trainees in education reported any on-job training (23% vs. 46%); practice teaching may have been considered as part of their university work, if any was undertaken.

Except for those trained in community development, this field showed the largest proportion of persons trained in third countries: one-fifth (vs. 15%) were trained wholly outside the U. S. Six per cent took their programs in Lebanon, 4 per cent in the Philippines, and 3 per cent in Puerto Rico. Education constituted the largest single field of trainees in the Philippines (one-third), in Puerto Rico (one-quarter), and the second largest in Lebanon (also one-quarter). These participants were no more likely than others to have attended orientation sessions, been met by program managers, found their programs planned in complete detail upon arrival, or to have attended a communications seminar.

Selection and preparation for training.--Education participants generally resembled others in their views on the selection process. Except for those in industry and mining, more of them (41%) took part in planning their own programs. Supervisors and U. S. technicians showed some contrasts in depicting their roles in the selection of these participants than of others, and in the preparation of their programs. Their supervisors were more active in recommending participants and in helping plan programs: they did both for 53 per cent of the participants they knew before training, compared with 46 per cent of those trained in other fields. U. S. technicians were less likely than those in other fields to have helped select participants (45% vs. 67%), or to have made program recommendations (51% vs. 70%).

Education participants did not differ from others in the ratings they gave their predeparture briefings, in the satisfaction they felt upon entry into training, or in the quality of their English language preparation.

After training.--Trainees in education did not differ from others in initial job mobility, in their ratings of supervisory helpfulness, or in their subsequent contacts with USOM and its personnel. They were, however, more likely than others to have remained in the job they had after returning from training (54% vs. 47%), and a slightly larger proportion has sought some form of assistance from USOM (25% vs. 21%). Eighty-seven per cent of all education trainees are now employed in this sector of the national economy. It was and is the largest single area of activity of the participants surveyed in this study.

Training evaluations.--Education participants seem to have been much more effective than others in applying their training. Nearly three-fifths had used a great deal of their training, 43 per cent having both used and transmitted "quite a bit" (or more) of what they had learned. (In other fields similar levels of use were reported by 51% and 37% of trainees, respectively.) Three-fifths still had plans for further use of their training, compared to 54 per cent of other trainees. Demonstrable improvements in their career as a result of training were noted by a third (vs. 24% of those trained in other fields). More (40%) were satisfied with the major nontechnical aspects of their programs (i.e., training allowances, social activities, and free time). They did not differ, however, in their ratings of the substance of training, in over-all satisfaction, or in assessing the importance of their training. Ratings of utilization given by supervisors and technicians were also essentially similar to those given to participants in other fields.

Health and Sanitation

Most of the 2320 participants trained in this field went on programs oriented toward preventive medicine rather than toward diagnosis, therapy, or patient care. Four in nine received training in public health education; about one-fifth studied environmental sanitation or the control of specific diseases; another fifth were trained in the operation of hospitals, laboratories, or other health facilities. The latter group contained a very small group who visited medical installations to prepare them for planning, constructing, and equipping such facilities in their own country.)

Characteristics of participants.--Health participants differed appreciably from others in their education, employment, and occupational status. More had earned university degrees (71% vs. 64%); more were employed by governmental agencies (85% vs. 74%); and, more were scientists and teachers (47% vs. 33%) or technicians (16% vs. 8%). Their ranks included correspondingly fewer policy-makers (3% vs. 8%), and managers or administrators (20% vs. 30%) than in other fields. More had worked directly for or with USOM (28% vs. 20%) prior to training. But they did not differ from others in age or work experience.

Program characteristics.--Training in health was more prevalent in the early years of participant training. Programs in this field were longer and more varied than in others; generally they included university training, and more often had a degree as a goal. Although the proportion trained wholly outside the U. S. was not exceptional, those who were trained in third countries were far more likely than in other fields to have been sent to Lebanon.

Health was the only field of training to receive substantial numbers of participants during the 1940's: over three-quarters of those who began their training prior to 1950 (mainly from Latin America) were trained in health. During the early 1950's the field received either the second or third largest proportion of participants each year. In 1953, however, the proportion assigned to health began to decline, and was down to about 10 per cent by 1958. More than three-fifths of health participants (vs. less than half in other fields) thus began their training prior to 1957.

Training programs in health were more varied than in other fields, in two senses. Sixty per cent of the programs combined two or more types of training (only two other fields had larger proportions). But only one of eight specific combinations of program types was received by as many as a fifth: 21 per cent went on a program that combined university training and an observation tour. Trainees in this field were, except for atomic energy and education participants, more likely to have attended a university (63%), and more likely than all but education participants to have received a degree (22%); correspondingly fewer were sent on observation tours (64% vs. 72%). Health programs tended to be longer: 54 per cent of the participants were in training for one year or more (vs. 32% in other fields). The median program was 13 months long, only one month less than in education (the only field with longer programs). Three times as many as in other fields (9% in all) received their training in Lebanon, where they constituted the largest single field in which participants were trained.

Selection and preparation for training.--As a group, trainees in health were similar to others in viewing the selection process, in their role in programming, and in their satisfaction with orientation. Reports from supervisors and technicians concerning those they knew prior to training were also similar to those for other trainees.

After return.--Health participants were more likely than others to be working for a supervisor they considered "very helpful" in facilitating their use of training (46% vs. 38%). While slightly more likely than other participants to have requested assistance from USOM (25% vs. 22%), fewer had received all the help they sought (59% vs. 64%). Other aspects of their occupational experiences--job histories and contacts with USOM or its technicians--were similar to those of other participants. Ninety-one per cent of all returned participants now active in the health sector of their economy were trained in this field.

Training evaluations.--Health participants more often gave favorable reports on their training and its usefulness. Their supervisors also held slightly more favorable views of the importance of the training their employees received.

The participants were more often satisfied with the length, level, and variety of their training (32% vs. 26%), but they did not differ from others in their evaluations of the three main nontechnical aspects. They were more likely to be "very satisfied" with their programs as a whole than others (56% vs. 46%), and more said their training was "one of the most important things" they had ever done (70% vs. 65%). This enthusiasm carried over to appraisals of the career impact of the training: 32 per cent (vs. 25% of the others) said the training had definitely led to a better job.

The satisfactions expressed by health participants with their programs are reflected also in their use of training. More claimed to have used almost all of their training at work (60% vs. 51%), and more were classified as "very high" utilizers (46% vs. 37%) by having also conveyed a good deal of its substance to others.

A greater proportion of programs in health were characterized as "essential" or "very important" for the work a participant was doing (79% vs. 74%) by his supervisor. Technicians were a bit less satisfied with the use these participants had made of their training.

Public Administration

Training in this field included a wide range of specialties, but nearly half of the 2093 participants in public administration were trained either in fiscal procedures (26%) or in public safety (20%). An equal number had training for general administrative positions or posts in specific ministries. Others received training in the operation of administrative training institutes, and statistical and census services; a few were trained in supply operations or personnel administration.

Characteristics of participants.--As would be expected, almost all these participants were government employees (92% vs. 72%), and more than twice as many as in other fields were middle-level managers or administrators (55% vs. 25%). They did not differ from others in age, work experience, or formal education.

Program characteristics.--Public administration participants were somewhat more likely than others to have been sent on programs containing two or more kinds of training (59% vs. 54%), and slightly more likely to have attended a university (58% vs. 52%); but slightly fewer received academic degrees (9% vs. 13%). No combination of types of training predominated: programs which consisted of university training and an observation tour, an observation tour solely, and those including all three main types of training were each received by about a fifth of the participants. In their length and locales the programs of these trainees were similar to those in other fields.

Along with education, this was a field which received increasing proportions of participants during the decade of the 1950's. Only three per cent of the 1950 trainees were sent on public administration programs; by the middle of the decade more than 10 per cent were receiving training in the field.

Selection and preparation for training.--USOM technicians in public administration became involved in program preparations for the participants they had known more often than was the case in the other fields. They said they had helped to select 80 per cent, and helped to plan programs for an equal number (the proportions for others were 62% and 66%, respectively). On the other hand, the trainees' supervisors were slightly less often involved in selecting and helping plan programs. The participants' own views of the selection process differed from others only in the lesser proportion who rated the needs of their job as having been a "very important" factor in their selection (82% vs. 89%).

Public administration participants were more often sent on programs requiring competence in English (91% vs. 83%); a larger proportion received some preparatory instruction (44% vs. 36%). But they did not differ from others in appraising the quality of their language preparation, and in the difficulties they experienced with English during training.

After training.--Public administration participants have experienced more changes in jobs than any other group. They were less likely to have returned to their former jobs (70% vs. 78%), and fewer have remained in the job they held after returning from training (41% vs. 49%). Despite this mobility, they did not differ from other trainees in the other aspects of their work situation explored in the survey. Two-thirds of all public administration trainees are still working in this broad sector of the economy.

Training evaluations.--This group of participants resembles others in their satisfaction with specific technical and nontechnical aspects of their programs and in their evaluations of their programs. They were, however, less likely than most other participants to claim success in using their training, or in transmitting it to others. Only 44 per cent (vs. 53%) had been able to use substantial amounts of their training in their work; significantly fewer were classified as "very high" utilizers (30% vs. 39%). Conversely, twice as many as in other fields said they had utilized (both used and conveyed) "little or none" of what they learned (18% vs. 10%).

In line with this, their current supervisors less often rated the training of their subordinates as highly important (70% vs. 76%). The USOM technicians were equally well satisfied with these participants' uses of training as with that of others.

Transportation and Mass Communications

The field of transportation, vital in providing channels for the flow of goods and services in the development process, is chiefly represented in the programs of its trainees by the most modern mode--air transport. Almost two-fifths of the 1847 participants in this field were trained in some facet of air transportation, a fifth were in programs related to highways and motor travel, and about one in six studied rail transportation. Sea transport and port facilities were subjects studied by relatively few; mass communications accounted for only 7 per cent.

Characteristics of participants.--Although these participants were on the average slightly younger (three in ten were under thirty), they did not differ from other participants in work experience or in the extent of prior work-related contacts with USOM. Just over half (notably fewer than in other fields) held university degrees. Four-fifths were employed by their governments; two-fifths were engineers or other professionals (including a small group of writers, editors, and broadcasters), and a quarter were middle-level officials. Twice as many were supervisors, foremen, or inspectors (6%); this was also one of the fields which included a sizable contingent (4%) of skilled manual workers among its trainees.

Program characteristics.--Training programs in this field stressed practical work experience. Far more programs than in other fields included on-the-job training (64% vs. 41%), while far fewer trainees attended universities (21% vs. 56%), or received degrees (4% vs. 14%), and fewer went on observation tours (63% vs. 72%).

Thirty per cent of the programs combined on-the-job training with an observation tour, while just under a quarter consisted solely of on-the-job training. Programs were briefer, on the average: less than a fifth of them lasted one year or longer (vs. 36%).

Although this was one of the earliest fields in which training was offered, more than half of its participants began their training after 1956. They have been trained in third countries as often as others; the small proportion (2.5%) who were trained in Taiwan comprised half of all participants trained there.

Selection and preparation for training.--Transportation and communications participants were more likely to say they were selected by their supervisors (59% vs. 50%). They did not differ from others in the relative importance they ascribed to the various factors in their selection. Fewer took part in planning their own programs (33% vs. 39%), and of those who did fewer felt that their own ideas had been influential (71% vs. 79%). A knowledge of English was required more often in this field of training than in others (90% vs. 84%). The participants did not differ in other respects.

After training.--These participants, like those in public administration, have had greater job mobility and closer contact with USOM personnel. They returned to the same job after training less often (71% vs. 78%), and have remained in the first posttraining job less often (41% vs. 50%). They were in "frequent contact" with some U. S. technician more often (22% vs. 18%), but differed little in other respects. Two-thirds of all those now in the transport and communications sectors of the economy were trained in this field.

Evaluations of training.--The U. S. technicians tended to rate these participants more favorably in several respects, but the trainees differed hardly at all from others in their own appraisals of training, or in their uses of it.

Labor

Nearly three-fifths of the 1040 participants in labor received training in labor and trade union leadership. Fewer than 10 per cent were assigned to each of the specialty programs in: labor legislation, organization of worker services, worker training programs, productivity and manpower utilization, labor-management relations, worker safety, etc. Significantly, half of the participants in this field took training which was ancillary to their principal work specialty. (This special group is described in greater detail in the second section of this appendix.) A relatively high proportion of labor trainees came from Latin America, especially Brazil and Chile; a sizable proportion of all Greek participants were trained in this field.

Characteristics of participants.--Labor trainees were older and more experienced than almost any other group of participants, but they were less well prepared academically. Forty-five per cent (vs. 29% of others) were 40 or older, and over half had ten or more years' experience in their specialty (vs. 36%). But far fewer had earned university degrees (36% vs. 66%), and 35 per cent had received neither university nor specialized vocational training (vs. 10% in other fields).

Far more worked for trade unions, of course, but more worked also in private business (31% vs. 8%). The major employer of this group, as is true for trainees in all fields, was their own government (45% vs. 77%). But policy-makers and top-level executives were more than three times as prevalent as in other fields (21% vs. 6%); virtually all of them were labor union officials inside and outside government circles. The field also included the largest proportion of lower status participants: 8 per cent were supervisors, inspectors, or foremen, and 11 per cent were manual workers (vs. 3% and 2% in the other fields, respectively).

Far fewer than in any field had any work-related contacts with USOM prior to being selected (16% vs. 40%), or had worked on jointly-sponsored projects (4% vs. 22%).

Program characteristics.--The typical program for trainees in labor was a brief observation tour in the United States. Nine in ten received all of their training in the United States (vs. 82%); nearly three-quarters (vs. 31%) had programs lasting less than six months. Eighty-three per cent of the labor trainees (vs. 70% of others) went on an observation tour: for 37 per cent (vs. 21%) an observation tour was the only type of training provided. While they were no less likely than others to have attended a university (mostly combining university training with an observation tour), far fewer received degrees (2% vs. 14%). They were the least likely of all to have had any on-the-job training (19% vs. 45%).

Selection and preparation for training.--Understandably, these participants said much more often that they were selected by labor or trade organizations (33%

vs. 2%), and in fewer instances credited their work supervisor with the decision (23% vs. 52%). They also claimed to have been selected on quite different grounds. First, many more trainees in labor than in any other field asserted that their personal contacts had been a "very important" factor in their selection (63% vs. 34%. Fewer said that language ability was important (36% vs. 66%), presumably because English was a requisite for only 44 per cent (vs. 86% in other fields). Since they went on brief programs to the United States, it can be assumed that these were largely group tours, accompanied by an interpreter. Finally, although they did not differ from others in assessing the importance of the needs of their job as a criterion for selection, half received training peripheral to their main job duties. Fewer took any part in planning their own programs (26% vs. 38%).

The participants' views on selection and preparation are corroborated in part by the reports of supervisors and U. S. technicians. Supervisors were less likely to have helped select and plan programs for labor trainees (30% vs. 48%); the technicians claimed to have been more active in their behalf than was true for others. Fewer of the labor participants had any advance commitment on how their organizations would make use of their training (72% vs. 85%).

Labor trainees did not differ in their appraisals of the orientation process; fewer remembered themselves as being "well satisfied" before going abroad (48% vs. 55%). English training and usage was less of a problem with them than with others.

After training.--Labor has had the largest proportion of unemployed participants (6.8% vs. 2.5%), and it is also the field with the least job mobility. Labor trainees most often of all participants returned to their old jobs (87% vs. 76%), and then remained in their first posttraining position (55% vs. 48%). Few considered their supervisor very helpful in assisting them to use their training (32% vs. 39%). Fewest of all groups have worked for USOM or on a joint project since their return (10% vs. 24%), or have had "frequent" contact with USOM technicians (8% vs. 19%). They were also somewhat less likely than others to have had any contact with USOM since returning (52% vs. 57%). And, although the proportion seeking assistance from USOM did not differ from other fields, fewer have received the help they requested (57% vs. 64%).

Evaluations of training.--Despite the brevity of their programs, the high proportion of observation tours, and the fact that half of the programs were designedly unrelated to their usual jobs these participants were more likely than any other group to evaluate their program as having been both "very satisfactory" and among "the most important things they had ever done" (50% vs. 37%). They did not differ from others in their satisfaction with either the technical or nontechnical aspects of their training.

On the other hand, labor participants were the least successful of all groups in using what they had learned: only 35 per cent (vs. 53% in other fields) had used most of their training, and only 29 per cent (vs. 38%) were classified as "very high" in using training and conveying it to others. They were also less likely to say their training had led to a better job (14% vs. 26%).

These participants also received less favorable ratings from their supervisors and from USOM technicians. The supervisors judged two-thirds of the programs as "essential" or "very important" for the work of the participants (vs. 75%). Technicians rated a slightly larger proportion of the jobs these participants held as "above average" in importance for economic development (72% vs. 68%), but saw the training as a "major contribution" to the job performance of only 52 per cent (vs. 65%).

Those trained in labor are distributed across a great many areas of economic activity, but chiefly are now in government administration, labor, manufacturing and transportation. None of these has absorbed as many as a quarter of all labor participants.

Community Development, Housing and Social Welfare

Two-thirds of the 432 participants in this field were trained in community development. Over one quarter of all trainees came from Pakistan alone.

Participant characteristics.--This group was better educated than others, but had less work experience. Three-quarters (vs. 64%) held a university degree, but one-half (vs. 36%) had less than five years' experience in their specialty. More were government employees (86% vs. 75%), and more were middle level officials (44% vs. 28%) than in other fields. They were much more likely to have had some prior contacts with USOM before going abroad (57% vs. 39%).

Program characteristics.--Community development participants were sent on an observation tour more often (84% vs. 71%), and received on-the-job training less often

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(31% vs. 43%). They also earned fewer academic degrees (8% vs. 13%), even though the proportion sent to universities differed little from other fields. Two types of programs predominated: a third went solely on an observation tour, and another 30 per cent went on programs which combined university training with an observation tour. The durations of their programs were correspondingly shorter than in other fields: 43 per cent (vs. 33%) had programs which lasted less than six months.

Although three quarters of the participants came to the U. S., third country training was also used more often than in other fields. Thirty-nine per cent (vs. 71%) received all their training in the United States, and 36 per cent visited third countries briefly after having been trained for a longer period in the United States; the latter was true of only 9 per cent of other trainees. A quarter (vs. 18%) received all of their training in a third country, half of them (vs. 2% in other fields) being sent to two or more.

Community development was a field with a larger proportion of participants who began training in 1957 or after (70% vs. 47%); none was trained in it prior to 1952.

Selection and preparation for training.--These participants saw their selection generally in the same terms as did those in other fields. English was as often a requisite for training as in other fields, but less often rated a problem. They were satisfied with their orientation for training more often (47% vs. 42%), but differed little from others on other evaluations of the predeparture phase.

After training.--While community development trainees returned to their old jobs more often (84% vs. 77%), they have not changed jobs since then more (or less) than others. But twice as many (5.6% vs. 2.9%) have experienced some period of unemployment.

More have had contacts with USOM since their training (66% vs. 57%), primarily as a result of more frequently being employed by USOM or at work on a jointly sponsored project (35% vs. 23%). Fewer worked for a supervisor termed "very helpful" in utilizing their training (32% vs. 39%). Almost two-thirds of all participants now working in this area of activity received training in this field.

Evaluations of training.--Evaluations of training in community development differed in few respects; in it was less often termed "one of the most important things" a participant had ever done (52% vs. 66%), and U. S. technicians tended to downgrade its relative importance or value. But on other measures both participants in this field and their supervisors differed little from others in their judgments.

Atomic Energy

Two hundred and fifty-nine participants in this survey received training in the "peaceful uses of atomic energy."

Characteristics of the participants.--These participants were the youngest and most highly educated, with a median age of 32 (vs. 35 in other fields) and virtually all (97%) holding a university degree when selected. Forty-six per cent had five or fewer years of work experience (vs. 38% of others). Most were government employees (86% vs. 75%); no other training field included as large a proportion of scientists and teachers (64% vs. 34%), and only two contained more engineers (17% vs. 11%). The number of subprofessionals and technicians did not vary greatly from other fields, making executives or other officials markedly less prominent.

In common with labor participants, work-related contacts with USOM prior to selection were quite limited: only 16 per cent had any contacts with USOM, one half of whom had worked on a jointly-sponsored project. (In all other fields this proportion was about two and one-half times greater.)

Program characteristics.--Programs in atomic energy were far more varied than in other fields: 80 per cent (vs. 55%) included several kinds of training, nearly half of which (35% vs. 14%) consisted of all three major kinds of training. These participants had on-the-job training more often (71% vs. 43%), and attended universities too (73% vs. 53%). In spite of this, they were not more likely to have acquired a (graduate-level) university degree.

Almost all of them came to the United States, to visit or work in one of the research installations affiliated with the Atomic Energy Commission; only 5 per cent received any part of their training in third countries (vs. 17% in other fields). Such training is of relatively recent vintage: four-fifths (vs. 52% in other fields) began their training during or after 1957. No one was trained before 1955, and three-fifths of these participants came in 1957 and 1958 alone. Despite the longer duration and greater diversity of their programs, more were found to be completely arranged upon arrival (66% vs. 57%).

Selection and preparation for training.--Many more than in other fields said they had been chosen by special boards (27% vs. 3%); fewer claimed to have been selected by a work supervisor (35% vs. 51%), or by USOM (7% vs. 10%). In considering criteria these participants stressed language ability more (78% vs. 64%) and job needs less (78% vs. 88%) than did others.

They took part in planning their programs less often (33% vs. 38%), and among those who did a large number felt they had shaped their training in a significant way. Fifty-four per cent who helped plan said their program was based mainly on their own ideas (vs. 36%). They were as often satisfied with program information, and more than others pleased with orientation about major aspects of life in the U. S. (69% vs. 57%). However, as a group they were less satisfied prior to going abroad: 49 per cent (vs. 55%) remembered themselves as having been "well satisfied." Their future placement was invariably settled well in advance: the organizations in which they worked had some definite plan for using their training in 92 per cent of the cases (vs. 84%), the highest proportion of any single field of training.

After training.--Atomic energy trainees more often returned to a new job than others (37% vs. 23%). Their more recent job histories are like those of others, except for the fact that none was unemployed at interview. Almost two-fifths of these participants are now in educational work, with the government, utilities, and health occupying the efforts of a majority of the rest.

They had fewer contacts with USOM after training than others: half had some (vs. 57%), but only 12 per cent (half as many as in other fields) had worked for USOM or on jointly-sponsored projects. When interviewed, only 9 per cent (again only half as many as in other fields) were in "frequent" contact with a USOM technician. They have both asked for help less often than others, and fewer than in any other field received the help they requested (54% vs. 64%).

Evaluations of training.--Atomic energy trainees did not differ from others in evaluating technical and nontechnical aspects of training or in its impact on their careers. Fewer were favorable in their general appraisals of the whole experience, however, and many more were "low" utilizaers of training: 30 per cent (vs. 20%) said they had used and transmitted "little or none" of their training. Job shifting and the scarcity of resources available to them probably contributed to their lower use of training.

Trade and Investment

This field is not, of course, a "major" field of training, comparable to the others analyzed above. But its small group of 59 participants (34 from India alone) who were trained in money and banking, and investment practices diverges in a few interesting ways from others. They were by far the oldest, most experienced group and also slightly better educated. Most were in executive or managerial posts (69% vs. 29%); fewer were civil servants (51% vs. 75%) and as expected, more were in the private sector (33% vs. 9%). Work contacts with USOM prior to selection were limited, but 11 out of 15 who had any were working for USOM directly.

Training programs in this field were heavily concentrated in 1958-59; all but two were held in the U. S. The typical type of program was an observation tour. Seven in ten were sent for training which lasted less than six months. More said they were selected by their superior (63% vs. 51%); language ability was cited as an important criterion more often, and personal contacts less often by this group than by others. They took part in planning less often, and were somewhat less satisfied with the advance information supplied them. All of these trainees needed to know English; its use was a problem for only a few.

Since their return, they have sought help from USOM less frequently than others, but characterize their supervisor as "very helpful" in using training more often than did others. They were generally satisfied with the program experience; they just haven't done as much with their training as others. In a sense, one might term them visitors rather than participants.

TABLE A.2.--PROFILES OF TRAINING FIELDS: CHARACTERISTICS OF THEIR PARTICIPANTS
(In Percentages)

Selected Participant Characteristics	All Participants	Participants In:[a]									
		Agriculture	Industry and Mining	Education	Health	Public Administration	Transportation & Communications	Labor	Community Development	Atomic Energy	Trade and Investment
A. Age at Selection											
Under 30 years	26	25	27	32	29	22	29	14	20	40	12
40 years or older	30	31	29	30	28	32	23	45	32	18	66
Median age (in years)	35	35	34	34	34	36	33	38	36	32	40
B. Prior Experience in Field of Specialization											
Ten or more years experience	38	41	39	32	34	35	38	52	28	27	54
Less than two years experience	15	14	14	17	15	17	15	12	16	18	3
Median years of experience	8.1	8.2	7.5	6.2	6.8	6.4	7.9	10+	4.8	5.3	10+
C. Formal Educational Preparation											
Had a university degree	64	72	67	62	71	63	51	36	74	97	69
D. Employer at Selection											
Employees of their governments	75	82	46	74	85	92	82	45	86	86	51
E. Occupational Status at Selection											
Policy-makers or executives	8	8	11	5	3	9	4	21	9	1	11
Administrators, managers, or officials	29	24	28	26	20	55	27	26	44	9	69
Professionals: scientists, engineers, teachers	46	53	41	60	56	22	40	23	33	81	6
F. Prior Work Contacts with USOM Projects											
Had any contact with USOM projects	39	46	32	40	43	36	39	16	57	16	25

[a] The percentages in the column "All Participants" in these appendix tables are based on those trained in the above ten fields plus those trained in a miscellany of others and those whose training field was N.A. (N=19025).

The numbers of participants used as a base for percentaging in each field varied with the source of data:

	Agriculture	Industry and Mining	Education	Health	Public Administration	Transportation & Communications	Labor	Community Development	Atomic Energy	Trade and Investment
(N) Participant sample: weighted	(5043)	(2811)	(2692)	(2320)	(2093)	(1847)	(1040)	(432)	(259)	(59)
(N) Supervisor sample: unweighted	(1606)	(843)	(883)	(662)	(551)	(575)	(139)	(143)	(74)	(28)
(N) USOM Technician sample: unweighted	(763)	(256)	(412)	(359)	(311)	(313)	(83)	(66)	(5)	(2)

TABLE A.3.--PROFILES OF TRAINING FIELDS: SELECTED FACETS OF THE PROGRAMS
(In Percentages)

Selected Facets of Training Programs	All Participants	Participants In: Agriculture	Industry and Mining	Education	Health	Public Administration	Transportation & Communications	Labor	Community Development	Atomic Energy	Trade and Investment
A. Year of Departure for Training											
Left in 1957 or later	52	51	55	56	37	58	50	58	70	81	83
B. Training Site											
Received all or most of training in the United States	83	81	88	79	80	85	87	90	75	98	97
C. Completeness of Program Planning											
Arrived with program completely arranged	56	64	56	53	54	47	56	50	59	66	63
D. Changes in Substance of Program											
Had substantial changes made after arrival	18	18	17	21	18	19	19	15	22	21	9
E. Major Types of Training											
Programs included:											
Any observation tours	71	78	71	64	64	72	63	83	84	67	85
Any university training	53	58	29	79	63	58	21	50	54	73	25
Any on-job training	43	43	52	23	48	44	64	19	31	71	24
F. Diversity of Training Programs											
Program included two or more types	55	63	45	52	60	59	46	47	57	80	32
G. Receipt of Academic Degrees											
Earned a degree while on program	13	12	6	33	22	9	4	2	8	13	-
H. Duration of Training Program											
One year and longer	34	33	24	58	54	31	19	6	18	47	12
Less than six months	33	38	36	19	19	28	35	74	43	9	70
Median length (in months)	9	8.5	8	14	13	9.3	8	4.5	7	11	4.5

TABLE A.4.--PROFILES OF TRAINING FIELDS: BELIEFS AND EVALUATIONS RELATING TO SELECTION, ORIENTATION AND PLANNING FOR TRAINING
(In Percentages)

Beliefs and Evaluations Relating to Selection, Orientation and Planning for Training	All Participants	Participants In: Agriculture	Industry and Mining	Education	Health	Public Administration	Transportation & Communications	Labor	Community Development	Atomic Energy	Trade and Investment
A. Participants' Views on Selection Agent											
"Selected by my supervisor"	51	50	47	56	56	52	59	23	48	35	63
"Selected by USOM"	10	10	7	10	12	10	8	16	12	7	13
B. Technicians' Role in Selecting Participants[a]											
Participants whom technician helped select	64	69	68	45	64	80	58	74	40	-[e]	-[e]
C. Participants' Views on Important Factors in their Selection											
The "Needs of the Job" were "very important"	88	90	87	89	90	82	89	84	90	78	85
"Personal Contacts" were "very important"	36	38	29	30	37	33	31	63	40	35	22
"Language Abilities" were "very important"	64	62	62	72	69	68	69	36	63	78	82
D. English Language: Need and Training											
Program required a knowledge of English	84	83	86	88	87	91	90	44	88	95	100
Received special language preparation[b]	38	36	39	34	42	44	38	23	24	23	24
Wanted (some or more) language training[b]	48	50	44	51	48	52	53	34	36	38	26
E. Participants' Involvement in Program Planning											
Helped to plan own training program	38	37	42	41	39	40	33	26	37	33	32
Program incorporated some of own ideas[c]	82	83	85	85	84	80	71	80	82	83	68
F. Supervisors' Involvement in Program Preparation[d]											
Participants whose supervisors recommended them and who helped plan their program	47	47	50	53	48	40	43	30	52	35	-[e]
G. Technicians' Involvement in Program Planning[a]											
Participants whose programs were planned in part by a technician	67	70	88	51	56	80	75	96	40	-[e]	-[e]

TABLE A.4--Continued

Beliefs and Evaluations Relating to Selection, Orientation and Planning for Training	All Participants	Participants In:									
		Agriculture	Industry and Mining	Education	Health	Public Administration	Transportation & Communications	Labor	Community Development	Atomic Energy	Trade and Investment
H. Prior Plans by Employing Organization for Using Training[d]											
Plans for using participant's training existed prior to departure	84	83	87	85	89	75	87	72	79	92	83
I. Participants' Views about Orientation on Nature of Program											
Was satisfied with advance information given on all five major items (e.g., timing, content)	42	45	46	39	38	42	41	43	47	40	33
J. Participants' Views about Orientation on Country of Training (Site)											
Was satisfied with advance information given on all five major items (e.g., customs, money)	57	57	59	53	58	58	59	58	59	69	49
K. Participants' Evaluation of Training Prior to Departure											
Remembers self as being "well satisfied"	55	54	55	54	55	58	55	48	56	49	59

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[a] Data from interviews with U.S. technicians; and only for participants known by technician prior to their training.

[b] Based only on participants whose program required a knowledge of English.

[c] Based only on participants who had some part in planning their program.

[d] Data from interviews with current supervisors of participants, and only for participants they knew prior to training.

[e] Too few cases for percentages.

TABLE A.5.--PROFILES OF TRAINING FIELDS: ASPECTS OF POSTTRAINING WORK SITUATION AND USOM CONTACTS
(In Percentages)

Aspects of Posttraining Work Situation and USOM Contacts	All Participants	Participants In:									
		Agriculture	Industry and Mining	Education	Health	Public Administration	Transportation & Communications	Labor	Community Development	Atomic Energy	Trade and Investment
A. Pattern of Job Placement: Job Mobility											
Returned to same job they had	77	81	79	75	75	70	71	87	84	63	76
Has changed jobs since return	52	52	52	46	51	59	59	45	52	57	55
B. Posttraining Contact with USOM											
Had any form of contact	57	61	50	62	57	58	52	52	66	50	63
Worked for USOM or on a joint project	23	29	15	26	26	21	22	10	35	12	18
C. Current Contact with U.S. Technicians											
In "frequent" contact with a technician	18	23	13	19	17	16	22	8	16	9	20
D. Help Requested from USOM Since Return											
Has requested any type of assistance	22	27	15	25	25	18	19	18	24	16	12
E. Helpfulness of Supervisor in Using Training											
Has a supervisor termed "very helpful"	39	38	37	44	46	34	40	32	32	42	50

TABLE A.6.--PROFILES OF TRAINING FIELDS: EVALUATIONS AND USES OF TRAINING BY PARTICIPANTS, SUPERVISORS AND U. S. TECHNICIANS
(In Percentages)

Evaluations and Uses of Training: Views of Participants, Supervisors, and U.S. Technicians	All Participants	Participants In:									
		Agriculture	Industry and Mining	Education	Health	Public Administration	Transportation & Communications	Labor	Community Development	Atomic Energy	Trade and Investment
A. Participants' Evaluations of Program Aspects (Index) Satisfied with all three aspects: length, level, and variety	26	24	27	25	32	30	26	23	28	23	38
B. Participants' Evaluations of Nontechnical Aspects (Index) Satisfied with all three aspects: money, free time, social activities	34	32	33	40	34	36	28	35	35	32	14
C. Participants' Use of Training at Work Has used "quite a bit" or "almost all"	52	50	53	57	60	44	55	35	48	50	41
D. Participants' Utilization of Training (Index) "Very high": use and transmission of training	38	38	36	43	46	30	36	29	34	36	27
E. Participants' Plans for Future Use Has plans, intentions to use training	55	58	52	61	56	53	52	48	48	55	36
F. Participants' View on Career Impact of Training Has a "better job" as a result of training	26	25	20	33	32	25	26	14	20	29	11
G. Participants' View of Importance of Program Training was "one of most important things ever done"	66	66	64	67	70	62	65	69	52	61	50
H. Participants' Level of Satisfaction with Program Was "very satisfied" in general	48	47	42	44	56	44	46	60	45	36	62
I. Participants' Satisfaction with Training Experience (Index) Feels that training "one of most important things..." and "very satisfactory"	38	38	32	38	46	34	36	50	35	29	37
J. Supervisors' Ratings of Value of Training for Participants' Work Training "essential" or "very important"[a]	75	75	77	78	79	70	76	66	70	69	39
K. Technicians' Rating of Contribution of Training to Participant's Job Performance[b] Training made "major contribution"	64	71	65	62	63	57	66	52	54	-[c]	-[c]
L. Technicians' Evaluations of Participant's Use of Training[b] Participant's use of Training is "satisfactory"	83	84	87	86	78	83	87	78	62	-[c]	-[c]

[a] Data from interviews with current supervisors of participants.

[b] Data from interviews with U.S. technicians who were able to evaluate the surveyed participants.

[c] Too few cases for percentages.

Part Two: Profiles of Two Special Groups

Participants Not Trained in Occupational Specialties

Most participants trained in the fields reviewed above were sent on programs directly related to work projects, or to jobs they held or were to assume upon their return. Since 1955 it has been a general requirement for their selection that training have an explicit connection with concrete plans and projects. There was a group of trainees, about 5 per cent of those in this survey, whose programs were usually in the same general area as their work specialty, but not directly related to a project or job.[1] This category contained, for example: businessmen sent to observe the operations of a chamber of commerce; machinists (or supervisors) sent to learn about union organization or techniques of collective bargaining; farmers sent to see how a producer's cooperative works.

All training programs impart some "organizational" lessons to participants along with their transfer of specific skills. It could hardly be otherwise, since coordination or teamwork among specialists lies at the core of most modern techniques or practices which technical training programs seek to transfer. But the programs of this group of trainees were even more explicitly concerned with "institution-building" than learning new skills or acquiring knowledge necessary for specific development projects. It makes their experiences and views especially interesting to analyze, since the "social skills" of organization, as they have been called, are difficult to teach or transfer, especially across sociocultural boundaries.

Participants whose programs were identified at the U. S. Mission as being allied or ancillary rather than directly related to the practice of their occupations were interviewed with a slightly different version (Form B) of the standard interview schedule. Almost all of the questions were identical to those in the basic research instrument (Form A), and the answers of the two groups were combined in our world wide analysis. In this section, however, we will sketch out some points of comparison and contrast between the 95 per cent of surveyed participants whose training was job or project-related in character, and this group, chosen on other criteria for programs that were less vocational in character.

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[1] A concise definition of this type of participant training, together with guidelines for use of the appropriate questionnaire may be found in: "Survey of Returned Participants: Instructions to USOM on Questionnaires and Fieldwork Procedures" (This document, like other survey work guides, is on file with the Evaluation Staff, Office of International Training, Agency for International Development.)

Personal characteristics.--The most obvious characteristic of this small group is that training for over one-half (54%) of them was in the field of labor. It is actually a reciprocal relationship, since fully one half of all participants trained in labor were sent for training of this more "institutional" character. Because of the overlap we can expect that many attributes and evaluations noted in the profile of labor as a training field will find their echo here. For example, these participants were older: 47 per cent (vs. 29%) were past the age of 40 when selected for training. Then too, they were, in proportion, more often higher or lower in occupational status, and thus came from the ranks of professionals less often (23% vs. 41%). Twenty-two per cent were at the policy making level (vs. 10%); 25 per cent of this group were technicians, foremen or workers (vs. 12%). The balance of both groups were managers or officials, or were inactive. Although labor was the chief training field, some of these trainees went on programs in most of the others. Nineteen per cent were trained in industry and mining, and 9 per cent were in agriculture; no other field accounted for as much as 5 per cent of this group of participants.

People whose training was of this nonvocational character were sent more frequently in the later years covered by the survey. They were selected in sizable numbers only after 1956, and especially after 1958, when almost 60 per cent (vs. 37% of others) were chosen. This clustering may correspond with or reflect the establishment of a more energetic or enlarged program of training in labor at that time, especially for Latin America, the region from which a great many of these participants came. Another small point of contrast is the larger number who are situated in provincial urban centers in their countries (35% vs. 25%); correspondingly fewer of them are located in their capital city (58% vs. 64%).

Program characteristics.--Our information on this topic is somewhat limited by the manner in which these data were processed. Most trainees had observation tours, singly and in groups, of relatively short duration (less than 4 months). About half also spent some time at a university but for training which was typically brief in nature. Special interpreters must have accompanied many: knowledge of English was a requirement for the programs of only one-third of them (vs. 86%) even though most programs were in the U. S. Another difference was in their selection agent: almost one-third (31%) said they were selected by a union or trade association (vs. 2%), and only 22 per cent (vs. 52%) thought their work supervisors had selected them. This finding lends support to a belief that different administrative procedures and policy guidelines may have been used in choosing such trainees as these.

Evaluations of training.--In common with others these trainees were somewhat more satisfied with the nontechnical aspects of their programs than with the substance of training. They evaluated the training experience as a whole in more favorable terms than others: 43 per cent thought it both "very satisfactory" and "one of the most important things" they'd ever done (vs. 38%), but differed little when evaluating other specific aspects of their training.

The career consequences were less positive; from the standpoint of promotions, only 10 per cent felt that training had resulted in a better job for them (vs. 26%), and three-fourths (vs. 59%) said that training made no difference. The current supervisors of the two groups concurred in this differential judgment: only 56 per cent of the nonvocationally trained participants (vs. 75% of others) had their training rated as "essential" or "very important" to their current work.

These participants are currently engaged in a wide variety of economic activities. Manufacturing (23%), government administration (15%) and transportation (13%) were more frequent sectors than labor (12%), although training was given in the latter field to one-half. Some labor relations responsibilities may be part of the work of those not now in the labor area, but one can conclude that the congruence of field in which training was taken with current employment is very low among this group. This was also true of those trained in labor more generally, a fact which has consequences for their later use of training. What is learned about one field is not as likely to be useful at work in another.

Utilization of training.--This group has made less effective use of training (as was foreshadowed in previous remarks); in this regard they also parallel the experience of labor trainees. Although back from training as long as others, only 24 per cent (vs. 38%) had both used and conveyed most of the substance of their training. Most of the difficulty lies in the use rather than transmission of training, much of it attributable to the additional burdens of institution building efforts. For example, 26 per cent (vs. 11% of others) pinpointed the resistance to change of their government or employer (often these were the same) as the main barrier to their effective use of training, making correspondingly fewer references to shortages of money or equipment.

There were other hindering factors as well. First, although sent for training more recently, in a period when greater numbers of U. S. advisors were available, they have had less contact with USOM on its personnel. And, they have both asked for help from USOM less often (15% vs. 22%) than others and after asking more often received no assistance at all from it (41% vs. 20%). As we have amply documented, the extent of U. S. Mission follow-up activities can crucially affect the uses which returned participants make of their training. This outside support is all the more important since these participants worked under supervisors who were at all involved in their programs less often, and thus got less help from them upon their return. Then, no prior plans for placing them to make use of their training were made for almost one-quarter of these participants (vs. 10%).

The lack of prior commitments of this sort, together with the reduced role of the Mission in following up these trainees has had unfavorable consequences for utilization of training. Part of the difficulty may spring from an inadequate definition of what this variant (or maverick) form of participant training is meant to achieve, and how to select, train and support such trainees. Choosing high status people, for example, means that they will retire sooner (being older) and thus be unable to use their training; choosing lower status trainees means that institutional change will have to be effected by people with little authority. Poor placement and brief programs of training are other factors correlated with poorer use of training. (These remarks apply to labor trainees too, given the substantial overlap of the two groups.)

The possibility remains that this type of program cannot or should not be evaluated by the same standards used in the case of others. If so, the already complex problems of assessing training as a mode of technical assistance in cost-benefit terms become even greater, requiring new strategies of research and analysis. But from the data available to us, the results of such nonvocational programs are unfavorable.

Participants Trained More Than Once

For some who were surveyed, the training program which was the focus of the study was only their most recent one. A total of 508 returned participants (less than 3% of the sample) had been sent for training previously, all but 65 of whom had gone only one other time.[1] This group of trainees was asked a series of special questions which explored the circumstances of their earlier selection, and sought their views on the comparative merits of their various programs.

Only thirteen out of the twenty-three countries included in our analysis had any recipients of multiple training programs among their former participants. Further, the proportions who have gone more than once varied rather widely among the thirteen: at the low end are Jordan, Greece and China (Taiwan) with around 2.5 per cent each, at intermediate points are countries like Korea (2.9%), Brazil (3.0%), Costa Rica (3.1%), Philippines (3.5%), Turkey (3.7%), Thailand (3.9%), and several others, ranging up as high as Vietnam (8.7%) and Nicaragua (13.7%). In the aggregate, the Far East shows the highest proportion of repeaters (4%), with South America next in order of magnitude (3.2%); the other regions show negligible numbers.

What were the fields in which training was given to these participants? Of a total of 574 additional programs which were identified (some men went three or four times in all), agriculture accounted for 47 per cent, followed by health and by education, each with 12 per cent. Public safety and administration, and community development each accounted for an additional 8 per cent; no other field had as many as 5 per cent of the remainder.

As with their more recent training program, those who went on an additional program were asked about the job to which they returned. The job mobility which followed these earlier programs was minimal, although the few changes that did ensue were usually characterized as being to a "better" job, or to a different one within the same general area as the job held previously. Whether their job was different or unchanged the participants were most enthusiastic about the use to which they had put their training; substantial or maximum use was claimed by 62 per cent of those sent at least one additional time.

Those who had gone on still another program (42 people fell into this category) were asked how it happened that they went on a third program; almost all said they had been invited or selected. This training experience was also usually followed by a return to the same job held prior to it, and they claimed uniformly that substantial use was made of the training. The same pattern of answers held true for the 19 people who had gone on yet another program, for a total of four in all. The fields of agriculture, education and community development were especially prominent among the programs of these latter two groups.

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[1] The actual number of such participants who were interviewed was 251; when the survey results were weighted to adjust for differences in sampling ratios among the twenty-three countries in this analysis, the number of multi-program participants was increased. Most of our data came from tabulations based on the weighted sample of participants, but the pattern of results would not have differed if we had used the answers of the (unweighted) group actually interviewed instead.

All those with more than one training experience were asked to compare them with respect to their interest and also the usefulness of their programs. Almost two-thirds thought that one of their programs was more interesting than the other(s), chiefly because it provided more useful substance to be learned. And, three in five felt that one program was more useful, essentially for the same reason, that is, the subject matter was more closely related to their work and thus more usable.

Not surprisingly, these participants were almost unanimous in the belief that their previous program had made their most recent one more useful, primarily because of the cumulative effect of being able to build upon earlier learning. Few (5%) felt they could have dispensed with any of the programs of training they had undergone. Of somewhat greater interest, they split almost evenly on the question of whether it would be more advantageous to their country to send a few people on several programs or a larger number on only one. A little more than a third agreed with each alternative and the remainder couldn't or didn't give an opinion. Proponents of the first alternative stressed the chance thus offered to keep up to date in one's specialty, while those who chose the option of sending more people pointed to the need for many trained paople, or for creating the widest possible opportunities for participation.

What can be discerned as the principal condition affecting the choice of a participant for more than one training program? Our limited analysis of this question points strongly to the particularly close relationship between these people and the U. S. Mission in their country. More than half of them (57%) were employed by the Mission or had worked on some jointly-sponsored project at the time of their most recent selection for training, and only 16 per cent had never had any work contacts with USOM of any sort. (The corresponding figures for the total sample were: 21% directly or jointly employed; and 60% with no prior contacts.) This relationship is even more pronounced among those sent on three or more programs; for example, 59 out of 65 such people were directly employed by the Mission at the time of their most recent selection.

As with their closer association with U. S. Mission activities prior to training, those who had been on at least one previous training program maintained a closer involvement upon their return. Fully 55 per cent subsequently worked either for the Mission or on a U. S.-sponsored project, and another 28 per cent had lesser degrees of contact. (For the total sample the corresponding figures are 23% and 34%.) Again, those few with more than two training programs have had an even more intimate association with U. S. assistance projects.

Earlier analysis of results for the sample as a whole showed that prior work associations with USOM were strongly related to subsequent work contacts. It seems clear, therefore, that in the case of these multiprogram trainees the main impetus to their selection was the need to train potential (or already-functioning) "counterparts" or Mission employees, with a view to their more effective use in future operations. The two occupational levels that are somewhat over-represented among multiprogram participants are middle managers or officials, and technicians or subprofessionals, two groups that fit this image rather closely. (Professionals remain the largest single occupational grouping among these participants, however, as is true of the whole sample of former trainees.) Further, one can speculate that people who are closely associated with USOM personnel on projects would be among the most visible and readily chosen candidates for new openings, even if they had had some prior training. As their employer, the Mission would have somewhat greater flexibility and control over their disposition, or could take advantage of belatedly established training opportunities, to send such people on shorter notice.

Whatever specific factors were at work in particular instances, in general the conclusion can be drawn that the fact of their closer association with the U. S. Mission has heavily influenced the choice of participants for additional programs of training. From the limited data that are available, one can also conclude that multiple programs of training do not have special merit, apart from some claims for their cumulative impact. The elements of training that seem to have impressed those who went on more than one program were essentially the same as those commented upon favorably by single-program participants: the relevance and usefulness of what they learned for the tasks they confronted upon their return. In selecting among candidates to fill scarce training slots, therefore, one can suggest that a concern about better job placement for potential candidates, and attention to the relevance of their training to their proposed work tasks both outweigh in importance the simple question of whether or not one should send a former participant again. The pragmatic tests of occupational fruitfulness and proper work conditions seem to be sound general guidelines for choice.

APPENDIX B

DOCUMENTATION AND REFERENCES

Part One: Statement of Official Policy Concerning the Survey of Returned Participants[1]

I. Introduction

During [Fiscal Year 1960] some 6,500 to 7,000 participants will arrive in the United States for training. Another 2,000 will begin training under ICA's Third Country Training Program. Also, during FY 1960, the 50,000th participant will arrive in the United States under the auspices of ICA and predecessor agencies. Approximately one-third of Technical Cooperation funds are spent on this activity (about $50 million annually).

As the above data indicate, the participant training program is a training and educational program of major magnitude. It is an integral component of the ICA-host countries economic development programs--whose . . . [success] will depend a considerable extent on the degree to which we are succeeding in training the right people (participants), in the right functional fields, to the right degree of proficiency, at about the right time, and whether they are utilizing their training in the right way.

Is the participant training program succeeding in its objectives? In the words of the International Operations Sub-Committee of the Committee on Government Operations, House of Representatives, in its report "Government Programs in International Education," January 3, 1959:

> . . . The inherent good of these programs has been obvious from their very beginning. Most so-called evaluation studies affirm that fact.

The Sub-Committee recommended impact studies abroad to help determine the effectiveness of the programs, stating in part:

> Such impact studies would inevitably be expensive but this situation should be balanced against the consideration of rewards, one of which might be an ultimate saving on the expenditures of the U. S. Government through increasingly effective and selective use of funds.

ICA/W fully concurs with the need for careful study of the results of the participant training program.

Several USOM's have conducted special evaluation studies varying considerably in objectives, content, and methodology. USOM periodic reports to ICA/W, follow-up and evaluation airgrams about participants or projects, interviews with participants at the time they complete their training and related reports are valuable forms of evaluation and should be encouraged. However these reports are valuable only as they relate to that particular participant or project and cannot be easily systematized to reflect over-all problems, trends and areas that need remedial action. Therefore, the great need of the participant training program is for a systematic evaluation employing standardized content and methodology in all countries. This will permit the collection and analysis of uniform and meaningful information, and its use as a management tool in guiding the conduct of future training activities both in the U. S. and in the Missions.

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[1] Abstracted from: ICATO Circular A 175, "Evaluation of Participant Training Program" (Washington, D. C.: International Cooperation Administration, November 5, 1959). (The sections have been abridged somewhat; the original headings have been altered accordingly.)

II. Policy

It is the policy of ICA to conduct systematic, periodic evaluation studies of returned participants on a world-wide basis and to utilize information resulting from these studies to (1) determine the extent to which the participant training program is meeting its objectives and (2) to improve future and current training programs.

III. Statement of Objectives

. . . The objectives of the program of evaluation are:

A. To ascertain whether the participants (1) are returning to the positions for which they were trained, (2) are effectively utilizing their training, and (3) are transmitting to others their newly acquired knowledge and skills.

B. To identify significant factors which contribute to or hinder utilization of training and communication of knowledge and skills.

C. To ascertain if the technical training provided by ICA is at the appropriate level, of good quality, and relevant to the needs of the participants in the context of the home country situation.

D. To ascertain if the non-technical aspects of the training programs, that is, pretraining orientation in the USOM and in Washington or in the third country of training, community participation and hospitality, and instruction in the economic, social, and cultural factors influencing the specific profession or field of activity, were emphasized in the right proportion and were effective.

E. To ascertain if the administrative practices and procedures of ICA are adequate and effective and to identify weaknesses and causes of dissatisfaction.

F. To produce other reliable information concerning matters about which there is presently only speculation; such as the relative merits of U. S. vs. third country training, the relevance of the age of the participant to the accomplishment of a successful training program and subsequent utilization of the training, and the like.

IV. Procedures

A. Conduct of the Survey

The USOM Director should assign to a single member of his staff responsibility for evaluation studies . . . . Assignment of an officer who enjoys the respect and support of USOM staff is essential. [He] then must determine how the initial study and subsequent periodic studies are to be carried out. The necessity for personal interviews with the returned participants involves time-consuming functions of employing, training and supervising a group of interviewers. Equally time-consuming is the collection, processing and analysis of data. There are at least four ways these studies can be conducted:

1. By contracting with a local survey research organization. These exist in many countries, but vary widely in competence and experience. Where competent ones exist, it might be highly advantageous for the USOM to contract for the conduct of the initial and subsequent studies.

2. By a USOM official experienced in survey research, who can organize and carry out the study on a full-time basis. In countries where there are large participant training programs and many returned participants, the USOM should consider establishing a full-time position of an Assistant Training Officer for this function. This would assure continuity between the conduct of the present study and following through on findings and actions developed therein. . . .

3. In several countries there are Social Science Research Officers on the USIS staffs. These officers may be qualified and have available time to take charge of the studies.

4. By contracting with a U. S. survey research specialist who could initiate the study either in connection with an existing local research group or by establishing such a group.

B. Role of the Host Government

The USOM should seek to obtain the support and participation of the host government. The goal should be to make the evaluation studies truly joint ventures. Host government participation and joint sponsorship will add status to the studies, create an active interest on the part of the host government in evaluating other aspects of its economic development program, and eliminate the possible danger of the studies being misconstrued as unwarranted snooping on the part of the U. S. Government. In addition, host government participation will strengthen their interest in more effective planning and management of future training programs. . . .

C. The Questionnaire

This is the basic tool for the evaluation study. It has been developed by ICA, employing the services of specialists in the development of such questionnaires, and has drawn on the knowledge of many people throughout ICA/W and the USOM's.

The information called for by the questionnaire must be obtained by personal interview with each returned participant and not be solicited by mail. Personal interviews are considered to be the most effective method of obtaining the information desired for the following reasons:

1. Some of the questions require interpretation and explanation. This can only be done by a trained interviewer.

2. Candor and honesty are best obtained by an interviewer.

3. Interviewing assures adequate coverage of the returned participants. Responses to mailed questionnaires are generally not satisfactory. In addition to the usually low response, there is the likelihood that those who will respond to mail questionnaires are the highly partial respondents, either favorable or unfavorable, thus resulting in a false picture of the returned participants.

4. Interviewing has a considerable value in terms of demonstrating personal interest in the returned participant.

In addition to the main interview with the returned participant there are brief interviews required of the participant's supervisors and USOM technicians. These supplemental questionnaires are designed to obtain additional measurements of the participant's effectiveness and to gain insight into his work environment.

It is believed that this basic questionnaire includes the topics of major concern at the USOM/host government level as well as to ICA/W, participating agencies, and the various training facilities and institutions. ICA/W desires that the questionnaire be employed intact and that specific questions, their sequence, and their exact wording not be altered. . . .

D. Processing Data

Once the interviewing is completed and the questionnaires are edited, they are ready for processing. Whether the data should be hand or machine processed depends upon the availability of machine punching, sorting, and tabulating equipment, and the size of the local staff. Machine processing is strongly recommended wherever possible.

It will be necessary for the USOM to send to ICA/W a duplicate set of the machine punch cards, or the hand-tabulating cards, whichever method is used. This will enable the USOM to complete its country study and publish its report, hopefully in cooperation with the host government, and at the same time, enable ICA/W to make comparative analyses between countries, regions and fields of activity.

E. Coverage

The first evaluation study should aim to include as many as possible of the returned participants who have been back in their home country six months or more. Less than six months is considered insufficient time for participants to have readjusted to their jobs and home environment and for them to have a sound perspective of their training programs.

Some countries with very large numbers of returned participants may find it impossible, or impractical to contact all the group. "Sampling" may have to be resorted to, but, if so, extreme care must be exercised to obtain a valid sample. The ability to compare data between countries is as dependent upon the use of equivalent samples as it is upon the use of standard questionnaires. . . .

In a USOM or country where an experienced sampling statistician is available, the USOM is encouraged to draw its own sample, based on minimum requirements which will be subsequently furnished by ICA/W. In order to assure comparability with other countries, a detailed description of the sampling procedure should be furnished to ICA/W prior to interviewing.

V. Relationship to Follow-up Activities

This evaluation program should in no way de-emphasize the need or importance for continuing the USOM follow-up activities. The interviewing itself is a form of follow-up, particularly in those cases where there has been limited or no USOM-participant relationship since the participant has returned home. However, the purposes of the two activities are different: Follow-up is designed primarily to assist returned participants make the maximum use of their newly acquired skills and ideas and to institutionalize to the degree possible, continuing bonds with the U. S. It is designed to help the individual. On the other hand, Evaluation is primarily concerned with gathering information from many individuals to make valid determinations as to just how effective the program has been and how it can be improved in the future.

Part Two: Survey Materials and Data Processing

Survey Materials

To ensure comparability of data from surveys in the participating countries a great many detailed guidelines and instructional materials were supplied to the field. These constituted in fact a complete kit for conducting social surveys, with special reference to the requirements of this evaluation effort. The primary research instruments were the interview schedules prepared for use with former trainees; other sets were also drawn up for interviewing their work supervisors and U. S. technical advisors. Draft versions of these schedules were pretested in sixteen countries. In final form an English version was translated (and back-translated) into Spanish, French and Arabic. These were the four official language versions; in many cases further translations were necessary at the Mission level, and interviewers also had to sight-translate some items into local dialects. Whatever the language of their administration, the completed schedules were edited and coded into identical response categories by a multi-lingual staff, in accordance with the detailed instructions supplied to each USAID.

These schedules and other survey materials are too voluminous to be incorporated in this report. Instead, we will describe the questionnaires briefly, and append a complete list of the documents used in the survey, copies of which are available through AID.

	Use
1. Participant Form A Unweighted N=9,192 Weighted N=18,062	For returned participants who were trained in their occupational specialty. Consists of 146 items, including contingent questions.
2. Participant Form B Unweighted N=476 Weighted N=963	For returned participants who were not trained in their occupational specialty. Consists of 151 items, including contingent questions. (All but 10 items are identical with those in Form A.)
3. Participant Supplement Unweighted N=251 Weighted N=508	For returned participants who went on more than one training program; deals with earlier program(s). Consists of 30 items, including contingent questions.
4. Supervisor--Part I Unweighted N=5600 participants rated by supervisors	For a supervisor to rate individual participant(s) now working for them. Consists of 17 items on his actions and views relating to the training of each subordinate being rated.
5. Supervisor--Part II Unweighted N=3909	For a supervisor to assess participant training in general. Consists of 14 items; used for each supervisor only once.

6. Technician--Part I Unweighted N=2645 participants rated by U. S. technicians	For a technician to rate individual participant(s) known to them. Consists of 44 items on his actions and views relating to the training of each former trainee.
7. Technician--Part II Unweighted N=511	For technicians to assess participant training in general. Consists of 5 items; used for each technician only once.

The following documents were sent to every USAID for use in conducting the survey.

1. PARTICIPANT'S FACTUAL DATA SHEET, and INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE
2. PARTICIPANT DATA TRANSFER SHEET, and INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE
3. INTERVIEWING GUIDELINES, and DO'S AND DON'T'S FOR INTERVIEWERS
4. INSTRUCTIONS TO USAID ON QUESTIONNAIRES AND FIELDWORK PROCEDURES
5. PARTICIPANT QUESTIONNAIRE--FORM A
6. PARTICIPANT QUESTIONNAIRE--FORM B
7. INSTRUCTIONS TO INTERVIEWERS--PARTICIPANT QUESTIONNAIRE
8. INSTRUCTIONS TO USAID: RESPONSE FORM FOR OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS
9. SUPERVISOR QUESTIONNAIRE--PART I
10. SUPERVISOR QUESTIONNAIRE--PART II
11. INSTRUCTIONS TO INTERVIEWERS--SUPERVISOR QUESTIONNAIRE
12. TECHNICIAN QUESTIONNAIRE--PART I (and Set of 10 Response Cards)
13. TECHNICIAN QUESTIONNAIRE--PART I--ANSWER RECORD FORM
14. TECHNICIAN QUESTIONNAIRE--PART II
15. INTRODUCTION TO TECHNICIAN INTERVIEW (Single Sheet)
16. INSTRUCTIONS TO INTERVIEWERS--TECHNICIAN QUESTIONNAIRE
17. MASTER CODE SHEETS
18. PRINCIPLES OF CODING SURVEY DATA--A Detailed Booklet
19. INSTRUCTIONS TO EDITORS for the PARTICIPANT QUESTIONNAIRES, Forms A and B
20. CODE BOOK FOR PARTICIPANT QUESTIONNAIRES FOR CARDS 01, 02, 03, and 04, THROUGH QUESTION 94
21. INSTRUCTIONS TO CODERS FOR CARDS 01, 02, 03, and 04
22. CODE BOOK FOR PARTICIPANT QUESTIONNAIRES Forms A, B, and Supplement, CARDS 05, 06, 07, 08, and 09
23. INSTRUCTIONS TO CODERS FOR CARDS 05, 06, 07, 08, and 09
24. INSTRUCTIONS TO EDITORS FOR THE SUPPLEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE
25. CODE BOOK FOR SUPERVISOR AND TECHNICIAN QUESTIONNAIRES, CARDS 10, 11, 12 and 13

26. INSTRUCTIONS TO CODERS FOR CARDS 10, 11, 12, and 13

27. INSTRUCTIONS TO EDITORS FOR CODING SUPERVISOR AND TECHNICIAN QUESTIONNAIRES

28. MODEL TABLES FOR CROSS-TABULATIONS

29. CONSISTENCY CHECKS FOR MACHINE OPERATORS

30. GUIDELINES ON TABULATION AND MACHINE PROCESSING OF DATA

31. INSTRUCTIONS FOR RATING QUESTIONS

32. DEVELOPMENT OF TRAINING UTILIZATION SCORES

33. GUIDELINES FOR SURVEY REPORTS

Methodology of Data Processing

An exhaustive review of the computer processing routines used by the Bureau to produce tabulations for this world wide report and other special analyses of the survey data is contained in the following monograph, also available through AID:

Albert E. Gollin and John M. Kert, Evaluation of Participant Training: Documentation and Guide to the Study Materials (Mimeo), Washington, D. C., November 1965.

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